The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1903.

The Week.

It was incumbent on the Attorney-General to oppose the motion of the Northern Securities Company for a modification of the decree in the merger case. Duty to one's client is the same when the client is the United States as in the case of an individual. The Attorney-General's contention was that the Northern Securities Company is illegal, and hence that all its acts are void. If an illegal company can collect dividends now, may it not postpone its argument on appeal to the Supreme Court and continue its illegal existence indefinitely? The court, in granting the modification sought, has met this point by requiring that the appeal shall be prosecuted with due diligence and effect, of which the court will itself be the judge. It does not follow that because one dividend from the underlying corporations may be collected, subsequent ones may be collected also. Nor is there any reason to suppose that the counsel of the Northern Securities Company will delay the prosecution of their appeal or come short of the due diligence which the court enjoins. Under these circumstances, it would be a needless embarrassment to withhold from the company the money earned and already due to its shareholders, which money would reach the same shareholders eventually in any event. If the original order of the court were not modified, the probable course of procedure would be the purchase of the dividends by the banks in which the money is now deposited, and a charge of interest for the intervening time. The modifying order wisely avoids this needless labor and expense.

"The people want and ought to have the report made by Gen. Miles concerning conditions in the Philippines." This is the opinion of the Indianapolis *News*, which properly resents the attitude of the Washington Administration towards this and other documents which are unfavorable to our Philippine policy. Apparently, Secretary Root regards the public as if it were a small and helpless child, to be fed only on selected literature—selected by him, of course. If privately asked, we have no doubt that the Secretary would say that Gen. Miles's report misrepresented facts, and therefore ought to be suppressed. If that is so, the public may be relied upon to discriminate, and there will quickly be proof enough of the General's errors to correct his misstatements. But that is evidently not to be Secretary Root's way of doing things. Apparently, if he lets the report out at all, he is going to let it out piecemeal, and attach to each piece the opinions of officers or of governors who oppose Gen. Miles's views. This has actually been done in regard to the General's recommendations about the proper food supply for troops in the archipelago, and about the wisdom of employing troops to build roads. "Apparently, in anticipation of this criticism," says the Washington *Star*, "there is extant the opposite view of Gen. Davis, commander-in-chief in the Philippines, and this is published with the Gen. Miles recommendation. Similarly, the Subsistence officers are allowed to say why they disagree with the Lieutenant-General." But nothing has yet been heard of that portion of Gen. Miles's report which deals with the Howze cruelties and other horrors perpetrated by offenders in uniform.

A Washington dispatch states that President Roosevelt has communicated to his Cabinet officers his intention not to allow any more "barbaric yawps" from their subordinates against Germany to go unpunished. The authenticity of this report is not vouched for, but the subordinates aforesaid should consider it well founded, and control their tongues accordingly. The truth is that certain army and navy officers are usurping the functions of the yellow press in creating sensations in order to cause themselves to be talked about. As a general rule, these garrulous individuals are not seeking to provoke war or to get the country into trouble, but merely to draw public attention to themselves. They do not weigh their words. Their words are not worth weighing generally, but they irritate foreign governments and bring humiliation upon their own. If there has been a sore spot in the past in our relations with Germany, or only an unfounded suspicion of one, they seem to regard it as a proper subject for mirth or for maladroit observation like that to which Admiral Dewey recently gave vent. President Roosevelt ought to do something more than have a private talk with the next officer who commits such an indiscretion. The higher the rank of the offender the more public his rebuke should be.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* prints the facts regarding the appointment of negroes to office by President McKinley. It appears from its list that he put no less than fifty-two into the Federal service, to say nothing of several hundred appointed to the regular and volunteer armies. Nine of Mr. McKinley's appointees were made collectors of customs, sixteen were given post-offices, five went to the internal-revenue service, and nine into the Interior Department. To the diplomatic and consular service Mr. McKinley appointed the following: Rev. O. L. W. Smith, Minister to Liberia; W. S. Howell, Minister to Hayti; John T. Williams, Consul at Sierra Leone; Dr. L. W. Livingston, Cape Haytien; M. W. Gibbs, Tamatave; M. B. Van Horn, St. Thomas; Dr. George H. Jackson, La Rochelle; C. L. Maxwell, Santo Domingo; J. R. Ruffin, Asuncion; R. T. Greener, Vladivostock; Dr. H. W. Furness, Bahia; J. R. Spurgeon, Secretary of Legation at Liberia; T. J. Calloway, special agent Paris Exposition. Beside this list, Mr. Roosevelt's fifteen negro selections seem few indeed, particularly as eight of the fifteen were reappointments. Naturally, the *Ledger* asks why "the South, which is so angry and clamorous regarding President Roosevelt's original seven appointments, was neither indignant nor clamorous with respect to President McKinley's fifty-two appointments." But the good McKinley never asked Booker Washington to dine with him *en famille*.

The convention of the National Association of Manufacturers opened with a report by its President, in which organized labor received very severe treatment. The subject of discussion was the bills before Congress at the last session known as the eight-hour and the anti-injunction bills. These ought, the report says, to have been entitled "an act to repeal the bill of rights guaranteeing the freedom of the individual" and "an act to legalize strikes and boycotts." Upon this thesis a long and able review of the encroachments and demands, the tyranny and crimes, or trade unions was given, and we cannot say that the arraignment was too severe. The drift and tendency of all these demands and the lawless methods of enforcing them, the report says, are in the direction of socialism. Perhaps so; but are the trade unions the only organizations promoting socialism? The contention of the Socialists is that the State should take possession of the natural resources of the country, the tools of production, and the avenues of transportation, and find employment for men and distribute the joint product of labor and capital in an equitable manner. This would be doing on a large scale and in open manner what is now done on a smaller scale and in a somewhat less obvious way by the protective tariff. The Dingley theory now prevailing is that if the manufacturers are protected against foreign competition, they will be enabled to pay high wages and will avail themselves of that opportunity on equitable terms. This is the essence of socialism. Dingleyism says: "Deliver

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me from the fear of competition, give me the privilege of fixing the prices for my own products, and I will divide fairly and squarely with my workpeople." The laborers assent to the plan. It falls in with their notion of State interference with industry, but they do not believe that there has been a square divide of the joint product. Hence strikes, boycotts, picketing, and many kinds of tyranny and outrage which are so aptly described in the New Orleans report. Of course, these latter conditions might exist under free trade. They are met with in England as well as here, but in England the example of State socialism has not been set by the employers to the wageworkers.

Apparently the incongruity of their attitude in this particular has been forced upon the attention of the Association, for we find among the resolutions reported for consideration one "urging tariff revision on general lines." This is in harmony with the action taken by the same organization at its Detroit meeting last year. Although the Republican party appears to be deaf to every suggestion of tariff revision, it is impossible that the country can continue for any long time to witness the spectacle of American goods selling in foreign markets at lower prices than in the home market. This scheme, the last refuge and device of the tariff-protected Trusts, is attracting more and more attention both at home and abroad. It is the application on a wide scale and in a more brazen way of the sugar-bounty system which has so often excited us, and which led to the misunderstanding with Russia, and to the retaliatory duties which she imposed two years ago upon many of our exports. If producers can be protected against foreign competition in the home market, they can sell their products to domestic consumers at the limit fixed by the tariff, and undersell the foreigner in his own market by means of the bounty which the law enables them to collect at home. This has often been done, and is done in certain lines of trade every day in the year. Socialism never conceived of anything more wanton or more at variance with the principles of justice.

In his consuming desire to help Mr. Roosevelt get delegates, Senator Hanna is going to make a public defence of labor unions against the attacks of the Manufacturers' Association. He is to speak particularly to the charge that they countenance and profit by violence. They are sorely misjudged in that matter, he complains. An occasional member gets out of hand, he admits, and does some clubbing or murdering; but why hold organized labor responsible for that? A village may contain one or two blacklegs, but you do not say that they determine the character of the whole community. Well, we are not sure that we should not be bound to say so if the community quietly encouraged the blacklegs, and divided the swag with them. We should like to put one simple case to Senator Hanna, however, and ask him to explain it. The so-called anti-injunction bill in the last Congress was intended to aid labor unions. It forbade the use of injunctions to restrain acts by several which would not be criminal in an individual. But an amendment was adopted in the Senate committee, providing, by way of abundant caution, that exception should still be made of acts involving danger to property or life. Now is it not a fact—Mr. Hanna knows—that labor leaders wrote privately to Senators protesting that this amendment would destroy the whole value of the bill? In other words, they desire to be free to employ violence, and do not wish to be enjoined therefrom. The Ohio Senator should not pass over this point in his address on "Labor Unions: What I Have Done for Them, and What I Hope They Will Do for Me."

Lieut.-Gov. Lee of Missouri, who has apparently fled the State, from unwillingness to appear before the grand jury in the legislative bribery inquiry, is reported to have declared that Circuit Attorney Folk "is always making an ass of himself." This doubtless was also the opinion of sundry members of the House of Delegates in St. Louis, who suddenly went to Mexico and elsewhere for their health when Mr. Folk began his exposure of official corruption in that city. The legislative bribery investigation is now at the stage reached by the local boodle inquiry when Philip Stock and Charles H. Turner first furnished the Circuit Attorney with information by means of which he was able to force confession after confession, and to land many of the bribers as well as of the bribed in the penitentiary. Just what information Mr. Folk already possesses is not yet known, but it is certain that the entering wedge has been driven. The work of the grand jury and of Mr. Folk will now be, as in the House of Delegates cases, to piece together the details which have been secured, and thus to complete the story of the formation of the legislative ring, and the means adopted to attain its corrupt ends. When this is done, if the Circuit Attorney follows his former method, exposures will come thick and fast.

In the Citizens' Union convention on Thursday night the popular chord was struck when references were made to honesty and fair dealing. This was a tribute not only to the Administration of Mayor Low, but also to the Citizens' Union itself in its advocacy of principles and candidates. The spectacle of a political convention praising the administration of an official of its own choosing, and at the same time adding an important qualification to its endorsement, is a rarity, but it is none the less refreshing on that account. The resolutions themselves were drafted in admirable temper, and were adopted without amendment or dissent. Conventional hyperbole and traces of the whitewash brush were missing, but no doubt remains that the rank and file of the Citizens' Union, as represented in the convention, are as ready to carry on the fight for good municipal government as they were to begin it. It was freely stated by many speakers that the Citizens' Union has become a municipal party. This appears to be the fact. The old idea that non-partisans in municipal affairs must not organize to carry out their programmes of betterment has disappeared, at least so far as the Citizens' Union is concerned. The Union now possesses practically all the machinery of a party with, as Mr. Cutting says, one exception—the boss. It has local organizations in the Assembly districts, some of them exceedingly active. Moreover, in its convention, while the right of free and open speech was amply preserved and exercised, there were evidences of a new understanding of the necessity of co-ordinate action based on a coherent plan. Two years ago the spring convention adopted a platform which, so far as it could be understood by anybody, called for half a dozen wild performances in the name of "progress." That platform, to be sure, was forgotten a week after its adoption, and did not seriously hamper the Union or the Union's candidate in the election canvass. But, fortunately, this course has not been repeated. The resolutions which the convention adopted referred to the subject in hand, and the matter of drafting a platform was turned over to a committee to report in the fall. The wonderful growth and vitality of the Union prove that an organization dealing with political affairs can be held together by another and stronger influence than "the cohesive power of public plunder." Its new sagacity and temperateness of tone show that it is learning by experience.

The actual withdrawal of one large trust company from Clearing House affiliations, because of that institution's requirement of cash reserves, and the reported purpose of two or three others to withdraw, are a matter for regret. We so regard it, despite the facts that the reasons are not hard to understand, and that the present situation will scarcely be altered by the action. The rule adopted just a year ago covered only future applicants for Clearing House privileges; but it was distinctly suggested that trust companies already using the Clearing House ought, in view of the greatly expanded credit situation, to adopt such a policy, and the Pres-

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ident of the Clearing House intimated that the requirement might, later on, be thus extended. After ten months, on the 11th of last February, the trust companies having made no sign, this further action was taken, by a unanimous vote. The position of the trust companies appears to be, that they will not submit to dictation at the hands of the Clearing House. Rather than regulate their business on lines prescribed by that organization, they intimate that they will forego its privileges. If they do, their future policy as regards their own reserves will impose on them a grave responsibility. The one institution, which has already formally withdrawn, occupies in this regard an exceptional position. It carried, last year, one-fifth of the entire cash on hand reported by the seventy-seven trust companies of New York State; the reserve thus carried by it being $2,021,607. By its own example, therefore, the Union Trust Company recognizes the wisdom of cash reserves for its fellow-institutions. The question what policy other withdrawing companies will, in this regard, adopt, must therefore excite deep interest. The other point to which we must call attention is the attitude of the Legislature. It is pretty well known that, but for belief at Albany that the Clearing House rule would be made effective, the pending Smith bill, placing the trust companies under the 15 per cent. reserve requirements of the State banks, would in some form have been adopted. Its adoption, on the eve of this session's adjournment, is out of the question. There is some interest, however, in the query, What will be done at Albany next winter, if the Clearing House's experiment turns out fruitless?

The packing system generally adopted by our street and elevated railways has received something like judicial sanction through a decision of Justice McCall of the Supreme Court. The case was that of a passenger who, finding all cars of an elevated train full, except a rear car, which was to be switched off, took his seat in the empty car and, refusing to leave it at the switching station, was put out forcibly by the guard. It should be noted that the train started full with a prospect of greater crowding all the way down town. Under the circumstances, the recalcitrant passenger had a strong case in common sense when he opposed the dropping off of an empty car. The judge could have decided against him only on the ground that such a change of plan as the attachment of an extra car to that particular train would have worked confusion in the general running schedule. It is to be hoped that the decision was based closely upon the specific case, for a general assertion of the principle that the train schedule of the elevated roads is immutable, and that these railroads need not make particular arrangements to meet the changing needs of traffic, would make the transit outlook gloomy enough. One of Josiah Flynt's characters observes that "the law's not for the Irish." Many New Yorkers will have about this feeling when they see what may fairly be called "crush law" sustained by the courts.

Whether Great Britain's public credit does or does not, at this moment, surpass that of any other nation, may be a question for discussion; but the question will not be settled by a comparison of prices for England's public securities and ours. The *World* combats, on this ground, the assertion of the *Evening Post's* London correspondent, that "England's credit still stands much above that of any other country"; pointing out that while 2½ per cent. British consols sell now at 91 5-16, United States 2 per cent. bonds are 106¼ bid. Two facts combine, however, to vitiate this comparison. One is, that the interest on our Government bonds is free of tax, as against a present tax of more than 6 per cent. on the income from British consols. The other is, that, out of our $914,500,000 Government bonds outstanding April 1, $495,500,000 were in the hands of banks which had to hold them as a means of retaining their note circulation and public deposits. In this respect, the situation here is much what it was with British consols during 1897, when trustee and savings-bank surplus funds were virtually driven into consols. Since the Colonial Stock Act of 1900—one of Mr. Chamberlain's steps to appease England's dependencies—admitted about $1,000,000,000 new securities to the field of trustee investment, consols have lost their peculiar leverage. United States bonds would have partly lost it if the Aldrich bill, greatly widening the scope of collateral required for Government bank deposits, had become a law. But, in any case, one season's price of Government bonds is a very inadequate measure of relative public credit. If the United States Government had issued eight or nine hundred millions of new bonds within three years, on a depressed investment market, our own present prices could scarcely have been maintained. Yet we could not fairly say that our credit had declined.

Though Mr. Wyndham's Land Purchase bill has been enthusiastically endorsed, as to principle, by the convention of Irish Nationalists at Dublin, the impression is left that much might have been said in opposition had it seemed expedient. Very significantly, the convention, instead of proposing amendments of its own, agreed to leave all such matters to the Irish members of Parliament under Mr. John Redmond. This was a tacit assumption that the Nationalists at Westminster hold the whip hand and can shape the bill in committee after their own mind. It was at once an expression of confidence in Mr. Redmond, and an assertion of the political fact that Mr. Balfour is in the hands of his Irish friends. The favoring voice of the Nationalist convention makes the passage of the bill almost a certainty, for the Liberals cannot oppose it in principle, and Mr. Balfour is too thoroughly committed to the measure to postpone it or dissolve Parliament before a vote is reached. Only an accidental defeat can prevent this result. But Mr. Michael Davitt's contemptuous reference to resident landlordism—a main point in the recommendations of the Land Conference—increasing criticism of the financial features of the bill, and constant mutterings of the old Home Rule propaganda formally reaffirmed by the Dublin convention, indicate that even when the Irish have got the Land Purchase bill they will be certain to ask Mr. Balfour, or a successor, What next?

To an already complicated Ministerial situation in England the new London Education Bill can hardly be helpful. In the comprehensive law of last year London was excepted. There the board schools are most firmly entrenched. The London School Board, an elective body, had on its roll for the year ending March 26, 1902, 546,370 pupils and 11,235 teachers, as against 210,000 pupils in "voluntary" schools (private schools receiving a Government grant). Since 1872 the School Board has done this work of education admirably, and it was supposed that Mr. Balfour's Government would hesitate long before abolishing so efficient a body. Sir William Anson's Education Bill for London, however, is drastic enough. Nothing is to be left of the old School Board except an honorary representation of five in a committee of ninety-seven. Financial control is vested in a committee made up of thirty-six representatives of the London County Council, thirty-one delegates from the Borough Councils of the city of London, twenty-five women, delegates of voluntary schools, etc., and five members of the present School Board. It is an absurdly large commission, and unwieldy also in its constitution. The actual management of the schools (excluding finance) is given to the present Borough Councils, which Mr. John Burns, the Socialist member, describes as "a panjandrum of superior persons." They certainly have no experience in educational matters. The bill has the look of a stupid and complicated measure, even upon the Government's theory that the School Board must go. The logic of the situation was to give complete financial control to the County Council, and allow it to delegate management to committees. But the framers of the bill had political and ecclesiastical reasons for exalting the London boroughs.

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THE SOUTH AND THE EDUCATED NEGRO.

At the large and enthusiastic meeting held in this city last week in the interest of negro education in general and the Tuskegee Institute in particular, a note of genuine sympathy for the South was heard in every speech, from Mr. Cleveland's to Mr. Washington's. It is a fine and just sentiment. The South's problem is our problem. We are all one. The head cannot say to the foot, "I have no need of thee." Negro education and uplifting is a national task—nay, in this age, when the ends of the earth are bound together, it is an international task. The South is simply the scene; the actors in the great drama should know no section nor ancient prejudice.

We unfeignedly share in this feeling of common responsibility. The North is in no position to judge the South censoriously. Here, as there, the searching questions need to be put: What are we going to do with the negro after he is educated? Are we to bar him from the occupations for which he is struggling to fit himself? Are we to neglect his political education? Shall we encourage him to become a property owner and a taxpayer, while telling him that the one sure defence of the taxpayer—the suffrage—is not for him? Official returns show that millions of dollars' worth of property is owned in Virginia by colored men. Yet they are injuriously and perhaps illegally disfranchised; and when the Union League Club is asked to look into the matter and take a test case to the United States courts, it lays the resolutions on the table. When the leaders of the race, men of education, character, and ability, are singled out for political honors, shall we be found crying out—or whispering shame-facedly—that such a recognition of the educated negro is a blow to negro education? For the present, we are content to test the whole matter, North and South, by the attitude which is assumed toward the educated colored man. It is not a thing to be left to the future. Black men at the top are already with us. How are we to treat them?

Now we understand perfectly the unreasoning feeling—race instinct, is the exculpatory name for it—which leads people in the South to dread the rise of the negro. It is a complex sentiment. There is in it, first, a shrinking from what is called "social equality," and, second, a vivid memory of the excesses and crimes of government in the South during reconstruction. But precisely from the educated negro has the South least of all to fear in either of those particulars. What complaints are ever heard of colored physicians or clergymen pushing themselves into white society where they are not wanted? In the city of Nashville, the leading dentist is a negro. He has the patronage of the best white people, yet none of them have ever thought there was a peril of "social equality" in his case. Education makes men gentlemen, and a gentleman does not thrust himself into circles where his presence is offensive. Similarly on the political side; the reason why the negro vote supported carpet-bag domination in the South was that it was an ignorant vote. Could Dr. Crum of Charleston, could the graduates of Hampton and Tuskegee and Fisk and Atlanta, be thought capable of advocating a policy of spoliation and terrorism such as affrighted the South in the reconstruction period? Yet it is exactly against these educated negroes that feeling in the South is now running highest.

That is why we maintain that the political rights of the negro are inseparably bound up with the cause of his education. It is not Northern prejudice, but Southern intolerance, which is forcing that issue to the front. Some say that the South will take kindly to the negro after we have made him worthy of citizenship. But it is the very colored men most worthy whom the Southern press and Southern Congressmen most bitterly assail. Educated negroes have been sparingly and cautiously appointed by the President as examples to their race, but what is the response? Read the Charleston *Evening Post*. "Let us remove the negro," it says. It frankly admits that "the attitude of the Southern white man towards the negro is incompatible with the fundamental ideals of the republic," but it adds that, until the colored population is expatriated or exterminated, "we will subordinate the negro and not worry about the fundamental forms of government." We do not accuse this Southern newspaper of being recreant to democratic principles above all that dwell in the North. It is simply a little more outspoken than many Northern men who think as it does. Senator Tillman said, most significantly, in his speech in Charleston a few days ago, that he could have obtained the rejection of Dr. Crum's nomination "in a secret session of the Senate." "Senators have denounced it privately, but they are afraid to vote against it." There is, undoubtedly, timidity and truckling at the North as well as intolerance at the South. But both will be made ashamed, or swept away, if the clear issue of human rights, with the guarantee of the Constitution, is pressed as it should be.

THE NAVAL FOLLY.

A distinguished naval officer writes to us: "One of the signs of the times is the transfer of the struggle for armed superiority from the land to the sea. In this transfer we have become entangled —largely through our holding on to the Philippines, which makes us guilty of the strategic blunder of maintaining an outpost many thousands of miles from our base." He asks us to comment upon this surprising change in policy which results in "substituting Jack Tar for Tommy Atkins on the peasant's back."

The theme is inviting. Take the matter of expense. All public expense means, by so much, personal deprivation. Income to the Government means outgo to the citizen. We have frequently remarked on the swollen and swelling naval appropriations of Great Britain, France, and Germany. The huge estimates for new ships and their maintenance are presented to Commons, Chamber, or Reichstag with an apologetic air. But how stands our own account? We are pushing up our annual expenditure on the navy at a portentous rate. Twenty years ago the naval appropriation bill carried less than $15,000,000. Even as late as 1895 it had reached only about $25,000,000. But the bill for the current year appropriated no less than $80,000,000. That is to say, the naval tax has mounted from about 45 cents per capita in 1892 to $1 in 1903—a cornerstone fact for the McKinley monument. Moreover, the expense is bound to go on by cumulative additions. One hand washes the other, and for both the country has to pay. A programme of navy enlargement to the tune of $20,000,000, as provided this year, compels enlarged appropriations for equipment and support. New ships require new men; 3,000 more seamen are to be enlisted, under the terms of the last naval appropriation bill, with 550 men added to the Marine Corps, and the number of midshipmen in the Naval Academy doubled. All told, we are at the present time clearly on a road which will speedily lead us to a naval establishment that will demand an outlay of $150,000,000 annually.

Thus rapidly are we wiping out, of our own motion, the advantage which we have always boasted that we had over European nations. Our isolation, with our expanding population, freed us from the necessity of going armed to the teeth. How, we have asked triumphantly, could the John or Hans or Jacques of the Old World hope to compete with the free labor of American farmers and artisans, so long as the former had to go to their work in the field or shop each with a soldier strapped upon his back? Well, we are strapping on a sailor instead. Do not forget that the dread of vast military establishments which Americans have proverbially expressed has had to do primarily with their costliness. This was what Mr. Roosevelt had in mind when he wrote, seven years ago, "We do not wish to bring ourselves to a position where we shall have to emulate the European system of enormous armies." This was also what he had in mind the other day when, as President, he congratulated the people of the West on the fact that the army, and the expense of it, were being substantially cut down. It is not that he

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or anybody fears that a great standing army will destroy our liberties; only that it will eat up our resources. But what shall it profit us to save $5,000,000 on the army if we promptly waste it and $20,000,000 more on the navy? Of all money unproductively locked up, that put into battleships not absolutely needed is the most profligately squandered.

And, as our naval correspondent points out so sagaciously, we are going into this game of naval strategy with an immense strategic blunder at the start. The theory is that we must prepare to defend ourselves by a navy against the possible aggressions of foreign nations. All the millions asked are for defence. No advocate of a big navy for the United States says openly that we dream of attacking anybody. All the talk is simply of making ourselves so strong that no one will dare to assail us. And yet in this process of making ourselves strong, we begin by making ourselves weak strategically, and laying ourselves open to an attack which we have no means of resisting! Who can doubt that, if war were to break out to-morrow between this country and England or France or Russia or Japan, the Philippines would fall to the enemy at the first blow? Their retention is a source of peril to us, in a military sense, just as it was to Spain. Where, on our professed principles of strategy, we should have been drawing ourselves in to become impregnable, we have been spreading ourselves out with the result of becoming highly vulnerable.

Oh, but nobody is going to challenge us in the Philippines. It is not at all necessary to have a fleet in the Pacific strong enough to meet any combination which might be made against us. We are a peace-loving nation. No Power is going to attack us. But this is to give up the whole case. If we do not need a preponderant navy to defend the Philippines, we certainly do not to defend our own shores. If we are to rely upon our good intentions in the one case, we safely may in the other. The truth is that there is no logical middle ground between a small and efficient navy designed for use in peace, and one big enough to meet all comers in any possible war. We are muddling away at great expense in a futile effort to find something between the two. We are not in a position, and there is no likelihood of our ever being in it, to outclass the great naval armaments of Europe; yet as if that impossible goal were our definite objective, we take needless millions from the labor and thrift of our people, and deliberately assume an unnecessary handicap in the industrial competition now pressing so hard upon all the world.

THE MACHINE BREAK-UP.

Dr. Philip Schaff used to speculate on what would happen if an infallible Pope should declare that he was not infallible. A parallel confusion is offered in the spectacle of a beaten boss asserting that he cannot be beaten. Senator Platt essays, in face of the disastrous collapse of his power at Albany on Thursday, an air of philosophic calm. It is a trifle. He half expected it. It will soon blow over. But all that will not do. His followers know what has happened, if the old boss pretends that he does not. They are filling the air with cries of "a revolt" and "disaster," at the very moment when he is trying to draw out the cold steel which has run him through, and to maintain that he has received only a scratch. His most faithful squires perceive that he has been dealt a mortal hurt, and that, though the sword-thrust is not perhaps as deep as a well or so wide as a church-door, 'twill serve.

The rejection of Platt's man Baker by the Senate is naturally accepted, in the minds of all those who go behind the appearance to the substance, as conclusive proof of the ending of the domination of the old Republican machine in this State. It was a crucial test. If a boss cannot, by the exercise of all his power, deliver an office which he has promised, then his glory has obviously departed. He may blunder in policy, he may flaunt his personal indecency in the eyes of the whole State, he may consort with the small-minded and the disreputable, and still retain his power; but if he cannot put his henchmen actually in office, even they will fall away from him. We desire to judge the drama in an entirely detached and impartial spirit. The actors were, doubtless, not all what they seemed. We have our doubts whether Gov. Odell made heroic efforts to secure the confirmation of the Platt nomination which he himself had sent in. The Platt organ is, as usual, shrieking out charges of treachery against the Governor. On the surface, of course, his action was perfectly regular. He lived up to his agreement to nominate Baker. Possibly he may now express his regret that Senator Platt was not strong enough to pull his man through. But it is evident that the people of the State will not stick in the bark of the affair. They understand perfectly that the break has come between Platt and Odell. The latter was told that he could not prevent the reëlection of Platt to the Senate without exposing himself to the charge of the blackest "ingratitude." Platt or ingratitude was the alternative offered him. He consented to the return of Platt, whom he might and should have defeated, only to find that he was afterwards pursued as an ingrate all the more fiercely. Finally, as we conceive, he grew tired of keeping up the pretence any longer, and quietly beat Platt at his own game.

If any doubt of this remained, it must have been dispelled by the nomination of Mr. Morgan, in place of Superintendent McCullagh, directly on the heels of the rejection of Baker. McCullagh pinned all his hopes on Platt's support. Serviceable to the old boss as he had been, and to the bosslet Quigg, he counted confidently upon their machine to keep him in the office which he had so notoriously prostituted. But Gov. Odell refused to renominate him, and, as if to turn the weapon in the wound, selected in his room a man of high character and fine record, absolutely without political backing. Mr. Morgan at the head of the Bureau of Elections cannot fail to be a vast improvement on the discredited McCullagh. Working hand in hand with Mr. Jerome's detectives, he will be able to prevent flagrant colonization on the East Side, and to head off Tammany collusion, for electoral purposes, with some of the worst Raines-law hotels. Young, active, honest, and able, Assistant District Attorney Morgan is an appointee who reflects credit on Gov. Odell for selecting him. We do not doubt that the Governor was anxious to get a good man, but we presume also that he took a certain pleasure in nominating him to an office now filled by a creature of Platt's.

All told, we cannot but regard the late occurrences at Albany as auspicious. The old machine tyranny is visibly breaking up. A handful of Republican Senators have defied the boss to do his worst, and not merely have survived, but stand to-day triumphant, while he is baffled and broken. Senators Brown and Elsberg were literally within the truth when they said that their course had the enthusiastic approval of their constituents. Their independence has not alone brought the Platt machine to disastrous wreck. It has marked out the line of future action for high-minded Republicans, and has plainly indicated who and what manner of men are to be the real leaders of the party after the defeat of Platt is followed by his complete disappearance.

THE MORAL OF THE CRAMPS.

The reorganization of the William Cramp & Sons' Ship and Engine Building Company of Philadelphia, made public on Tuesday, is of more than local or passing significance. The concern has long been national in its scope; and the fact that a loan of $5,000,000 is now found necessary to keep the business going, and that the creditors are practically to take control of affairs, infusing "new blood" and appointing a new manager, certainly challenges attention.

A part of the trouble has doubtless been "dry rot." Other corporations have in like manner failed from being under the shadow of a mighty name. A man of force and initiative builds up a great business, and it comes to be believed that there is magic in the family. Sons

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and nephews are taken in at fancy salaries, as if the special talent which first achieved success were inherited with the name. It is like the English traveller who asked Canova's son if he intended to carry on the dead sculptor's "business." There is a good deal of such unconscious prejudice, or favoritism, in the business world; and behind the prestige of a family name the dry rot does its work. Waste creeps in. Obsolete methods are clung to. Vigilance and strain are relaxed, and suddenly the world is astounded to hear that a firm which had been taken to be synonymous with soundness is in danger of bankruptcy. The Cramps appear to have suffered from such causes.

A deeper reason, however, seems to us to lie in the attitude of limp dependence upon the Government which this shipbuilding company has for many years assumed. It has been one of the most clamorous of the subsidy beggars. It has stood by the Treasury, cap in hand, asking an alms. Government contracts without end have been awarded it, but it has demanded, over and above all those, a bounty on every merchant vessel built in its yards. Yet short memories can recall a magazine article by Mr. William Cramp declaring that our shipbuilders would not need a cent of bounty, provided they could get their raw materials free. He was then for a fair field and no favors. But of late the firm's demand has been for an unfair field stuffed full of favors. It has had at least its full share from the Navy Department, official records showing that, of all the money expended on "the new navy" since 1882, more than 60 per cent. has gone into Pennsylvania, with its steel works and shipyards, and armor-plate factories. This fact, by the way, helps us to understand the high degree of patriotism—in the sense of readiness to pick a quarrel, leading to a demand for more ships—for which that State has been somewhat noted. But all that we note now is that the Cramps have had a large part of this Governmental business. If paternalism could have saved them, they would not have discovered their sudden need of more "working capital." Yet it would seem that all the time and money spent in securing navy contracts, and in running to Washington for years to join forces with those who were going in for the old flag and a subsidy, availed only to betray their weakness in the end.

It is an old moral thus pointed afresh. Captains of industry are lords of their own fate. No other, be that other a Government, can save them from the penalties of bad business management. And the worst of the mischief is that the habit of leaning upon Government aid directly or indirectly encourages bad management. Why need we bother to keep our plant up to date, to stop this leak and to prevent that loss? Have we not a generous old uncle at Washington who will make all good? So instead of daily inspection of the actual work, instead of careful planning and constant renewal and the freshening of method, we will spend our time with politicians and lobbyists, and strive to obtain by bounty and largess what can be, in the long run, won only by alert energy and the perfection of power to compete. Do we not see, in the case of the Cramps, one more illustration of the old truth that public cosseting, or the hope of it, cuts the nerve of private enterprise?

We refer to the difficulties of the Cramps without the slightest bias, and only because they illustrate a general principle. They show just what the subsidy-mongers and the protection-peddlers really aim at—a system, that is, under which indolence shall fare as well as the severest toil, and negligence profit equally with assiduous attention to the minutest details. Subsidies and protective tariffs, in short, attempt to take care of the lame ducks. But nature's method is to cast the bantling on the rock; and, when all is said, the methods of business have to conform, in the end, to the methods of nature. Even a long course of artificial feeding cannot save man or company that knows not the spirit of self-help. To put an industry on its own feet, and to keep it there by dint of intelligent and unremitting effort, is far better worth the while of inventors and investors and managers than to be forever appealing to Government for help which will do you no good when you get it.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

DUBLIN, April 4, 1903.

Irish thoughts and interests are now concentrated on the bill introduced on the 25th of March by Chief Secretary Wyndham. The object of the measure is to offer such pecuniary inducements to landlords to sell and to tenants to buy as will bring out a wholesale, or very large, transfer of ownership without actual compulsion. So far as the landlords are concerned, this has been done. Whereas the selling price of landlords' estates in the best of times was on an average not more than twenty-three years' purchase of the rental, and for the last twenty years about seventeen years' purchase, the price which the bill proposes will be from twenty years' purchase for the worst class of estates to nearly thirty-three years' for the best.

Hitherto, landlord sellers have been paid in 2¾ per cent. stock, worth before the South African war 113, but now only worth 90. Under the bill they will be paid in cash. The money required is estimated to amount to about 100 millions sterling, and is to be raised by the issue of stock carrying 2¾ per cent. interest for thirty years, after which it will be redeemable at par. The payment of the interest on the stock will be secured (1) by the annuities payable by tenant purchasers; (2) by various grants which are now made from the Exchequer in aid of local taxation, for the support of lunatics, police, and for educational purposes; (3) by the local rates, which the Lord Lieutenant can order to be increased in case of any loss by default in payment of the land-purchase annuities.

Under the fiscal system which has been developed by Tory governments during the last twenty years, the three divisions of the United Kingdom receive sundry grants in relief of local taxation, for purposes which previously had been considered to be the special concern of the local governing units. The resulting confusion between local and imperial finance has made all accounts of receipts and expenditure of taxation obscure and often unintelligible; it has made efficient supervision and control by Parliament almost impossible; and the effect of the financial provisions of the Land Bill on the general body of taxpayers will be apprehended by very few persons. However, Mr. Wyndham was able to assure the British taxpayer that he ran no risk; that the loan proposed to be issued was secured over and over again, and that England stood to win financially. There can be no doubt about that, though it may be difficult to ear-mark the particular Irish funds that will be successively liable for the losses that are inevitable in giving the landlords prices for their estates far in excess of any that they ever expected, or would have taken twelve months ago.

Mr. Wyndham anticipated that it would take fifteen years to issue the whole amount of purchase money; and as there will be an immediate loss on the issue at a discount of the 2¾ per cent. stock, the fund made immediately liable for that loss is a yearly grant of £185,000 for educational purposes—a grant made to balance a similar one arranged last year for Great Britain. It was hoped that the now well-ascertained and almost universally admitted overtaxation of Ireland might have been a sufficient reason for throwing the expenses and losses in carrying out this great reform on the shoulders of the whole body of the United Kingdom taxpayers; but that is not to be so. The British rule is, that Ireland is not a separate financial entity when it is a question of increased taxation for British purposes, but that she is, and must bear the entire cost, when it is a question of expenditure on Irish national objects. The British Treasury claimed, when the overtaxation of Ireland was demonstrated to the Financial Relations Commission, that their expenditure in Ireland, pronounced wasteful and demoralizing, should be taken as a set-off. Mr. Wyndham announced that savings made in Irish administration during the last few years amounted to £440,000, and that he hoped to effect very much larger savings; but no intention of allocating these savings to Irish purposes was intimated. The British Treasury must win, and will win largely, over this business.

Now for the tenant purchaser's position. Hitherto he had agreed to buy for a lump sum, which he usually reckoned at so many years' purchase of his rent. He could repay this by paying an annuity of 4 per cent. on the price for forty-two and one-half years; or he might have this annuity reduced by 10 or 12 per cent. at the end of each of the first three decades, and then continue paying 2½ per cent. on the original loan until seventy-two years had

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elapsed from the date of his purchase; or he might pay off the whole or any part of the loan at any time. When he bought he became full and absolute owner of his farm. He was proprietor *a cœlo usque ad inferos*.

That is not to be so under the Land Bill. No purchaser will become absolute owner, nor is he to agree to buy for any known sum. He must agree to buy for an annuity which is not to be less than 10 per cent. or more than 40 per cent. below his existing rent; seven-eighths of this annuity will be terminable in sixty-eight and one-half years, and one-eighth is to remain a perpetual charge on the land. Mines, minerals, rights of shooting, hunting, and fishing do not pass to the purchaser, but are to remain the property of the State—*i. e.*, at present, the Treasury. The purchaser will not become the owner; he will be a State tenant, with a right to use the surface of the land for farming purposes only, and without power to explore or develop its mineral resources if they exist. If a tenant wants to know what price he is paying for this limited ownership, he must divide the annuity he has agreed on with his landlord into two parts, and multiply one-eighth of the annuity by 36.36 and seven-eighths by 30.7. The selling landlord will get in addition a bonus of from 15 per cent. on the purchase money of estates not exceeding £5,000 capital value, to 5 per cent. on estates where the total price exceeds £40,000. The purchasing tenant cannot be said to pay this bonus, except so far as he contributes to it as a taxpayer.

Another provision in relief of the landlords is that they may sell their demesnes and home farms to the State, and then repurchase them by means of a terminable annuity of 3¼ per cent. for sixty-nine years; but in these cases the mines, minerals, and sporting rights do not vest in the State. The owners will retain full ownership; they can buy off any rent charges they are now subject to for twenty years' purchase, and, by paying off mortgages on which the interest would usually be from 4½ to 6 per cent., they materially increase their income at the expense of the public.

The entire bonus expected to be given to the landlords during the next fifteen years is estimated at about twelve millions. There are some excellent and unobjectionable provisions in the bill for expediting the investigation of landlords' titles and the distribution of the purchase money. Red tape and lawyers' cobwebs are swept away if the administration act in the spirit in which these clauses are conceived.

Looking at the measure as a whole, I should say it is not fair as between landlord and tenant. It gives the landlord far more than the value of his estate, and does not give the tenant the full ownership that he desires to have, nor adequate consideration for what he will have to pay. It is unfair between Great Britain and Ireland, for it puts an unnecessarily heavy charge on the Irish taxpayer for a reform from which England will derive not only a large benefit, but a profit. It is questionable whether the tenants will be very anxious to buy on the terms offered. They will see the general unfairness of the terms, but they may be driven to accept whatever alleviation of their present burdens is obtainable, as a hungry man might pay a shilling for a loaf when he knew the fair price should be fourpence.

A convention is to meet in Dublin to discuss the bill before it is read a second time. If the finance of the bill as between landlord, tenant, and Irish taxpayer could be clearly explained, I think its rejection would be certain; but there are many persons interested in and desirous of seeing some final measure passed, and it is not likely that country farmers will form a majority of the speakers at the convention.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE RELIGIOUS PROBLEM IN FRANCE.

ITHACA, April 14, 1903.

The campaign against religious and monastic orders, which for the last three years has been disturbing French politics, and which is now once more agitating the national Parliament, is only an episode in the struggle, centuries old, between Church and State. Under the old régime, the question was simply that of establishing the preëminence of the civil power over the power of the Church, and the control by the State over ecclesiastical dignitaries of all degrees. The Church was none the worse for it. It existed as a privileged order, rich and powerful. The Catholic religion formed an inseparable element of the national life. The Church kept the registers of births and marriages, and had all education in its hands. It had the prestige and the power of a State religion. With the Revolution of 1789 the contest entered upon a new phase. The efforts of the civil power were no longer limited to resisting the encroachments of the power of the Church. After effecting more and more the separation of the two powers by restricting ecclesiastical authority to its proper sphere, the State next sought to diminish the influence of Catholicism upon the popular mind. The policy, brutally begun by the Constituante, was continued by the Convention; its effects, however, were not lasting. Napoleon and his successors restored to the Church some of its privileges and a part of its influence. In fact, all the monarchical governments of France found it to their interest to make with the Church an alliance by which both parties profited.

It is only since the establishment of the present republic that the *politique laïque*, the policy of thorough secularization, has been pursued in a manner at once methodical and aggressive. The aim of the republic has been to suppress every trace of religion in the official life of the State and in all the institutions which depend upon the State. The slightest vestiges of the ancient alliance between the throne and the altar, however innocent they might appear, have been one after another obliterated. In 1882 the law of Jules Ferry established definitively the secular character of national instruction. In many places the crucifixes were removed from the schools, and the clergy of all denominations were forbidden to enter. The participation of military troops in religious processions was likewise prohibited. The chaplains in the army were abolished. In 1884 the public prayer which the Constitution directed should be offered at the opening of each session of Parliament, was abolished by the two houses in joint session. In 1889 the clergy were deprived of their privilege of exemption from military service, and the popular cry, "Les curés sac au dos," out of which Boulanger made capital, gave an indication of the spirit in which the new law had been framed. Until quite recently there still persisted two venerable relics of the ancient tradition: the "Red Mass," celebrated in the presence of the magistrates and the bar each year at the opening of the term, and the ceremonies held on Good Friday on all the national vessels of war. During the Ministry of Waldeck-Rousseau these two observances were likewise abolished.

Every year, when the appropriations are voted, a motion is made for the abolition, pure and simple, of the appropriation for the support of religious worship and of the embassy to the Vatican. It is regularly backed by a strong minority. Four years ago, one hundred and sixty-six Deputies even voted for a motion to remove from the French coinage the motto, "Dieu protège la France." It may be added that the Republican party in France is inclined, as a whole, to manifestations of anti-religious feeling. The great leaders of the Republican party, Gambetta, Victor Hugo, Jules Ferry, Floquet, Burdeau, were buried without religious ceremonies. The President of the Republic is held to strict prudence in all religious matters. Félix Faure was ridiculed for having asked the little girls of an orphan asylum to remember him in their prayers. M. Combes was lately hooted at by his own majority for incidentally expressing the opinion that the great mass of the public is not yet ready to be satisfied with purely ethical ideas for a religion. The combination of religious features with matters of government and politics in the United States, as manifested in the invocation of the name of God in official documents, and in the prayers offered in Congress and in political conventions, appear to French Republicans a shocking inconsequence.

One would naturally conclude that the logical result of such a conception would be the complete separation of the churches and the State. Such is, in fact, the case. The platform of the Radical party has always placed this measure among the reforms most urgently called for. But, when in power, the Radicals have never dared to put it into effect; they have feared that such a separation would make the Church too strong and leave the State with too little control over her. This was the belief of Gambetta, of Paul Bert, and of Ferry, the leaders of the anti-clerical movement in the Third Republic. To them, entire separation seemed a course full of danger. Under these circumstances the different administrations have restricted themselves to waging war upon such institutions of a religious character as they have considered unnecessary to the exercise of religion and dangerous to the State.

This is the origin of the famous Law of Associations. This law, passed in July, 1901, contains two threatening sections. Section 13 declares that no religious organization shall be permitted to exist without legal authorization. Section 18 declares that organizations to which authorization is refused shall be considered dissolved. The author of the law, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, a statesman of the anti-clerical, but not of the anti-religious school, desired

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simply to reach some of the religious orders taking an active part in politics and in teaching. Both in number and in fortune these had increased to an alarming extent. In 1789 there were in France only 60,000 members of religious orders; today there are 200,000. In a famous speech delivered in April, 1900, Waldeck-Rousseau said, "This country really has too many monks in business and too many monks in politics." He also wished to strike a blow at certain orders which have monopolized in France the education of a large part of the middle class, and which helped to bring up half the youth of France with ideas hostile to the principles of modern society.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau had the law enacted, and then voluntarily withdrew from the premiership. It was his successor, M. Combes, who, with the support of the Radical majority of the new Chamber, undertook its administration. M. Combes himself belongs to the school of aggressive Radicalism. He interpreted the law in its most restrictive sense, and availed himself of every pretext which it afforded for hostile action against the orders. In accord with the advice of a commission, headed by M. Buisson, a distinguished educator, professor of philosophy in the Sorbonne, recently elected Deputy, he decided to refuse authorization to all the orders except those of two classes—the missionary orders and the hospitallers. Last March the Chamber ratified this policy. Fifty-four congregations of men, belonging to three classes, teaching, preaching, and commercial, have been condemned to extinction. By three successive votes, the first of which was of 300 to 257, the Chamber has refused even to consider the petitions of these monks, whether devoted to education, like the Marists and the Eudists; to preaching, like the Dominicans and the Oratorians; or to contemplation and industry, like the Carthusians, the distillers of Chartreuse. Taking advantage of its powers under the law to refuse authorization as it pleases, the Chamber has made a veritable hecatomb. Only a few congregations have survived—those previously authorized, like the Brothers of the Christian Schools and the Priests of St. Sulpice, and the missionaries and hospitallers, whose fate rests with the Senate.

Of course, these radical measures have not been voted without vehement protestations and eloquent speeches. Nowhere are there such splendid debates, from the point of view of oratory, as in France when great political and religious questions come up before Parliament. Two years ago, when the original law was under debate, there were great speeches by M. de Mun and by M. Waldeck-Rousseau; last month, when the application of the law was being discussed, the leading orators were M. Combes and M. Ribot. It would be idle to offer a personal opinion on a question of this kind, which each individual regards differently, according to his temperament, his education, and his principles. I shall therefore confine myself to outlining the arguments of the three parties which have formed themselves in France with regard to the question of the congregations.

In the first place, the supporters of the law are made up of Progressist Republicans who would like to ruin the clerical party, and of Radicals and Socialists whose aim is the destruction of Roman Catholicism itself. Their arguments are various. Against the religious orders in general they urge that these are based upon an inadmissible principle, that of the surrender of personality. "We refuse," says M. Buisson, "to place the seal of the State upon a contract which alienates the liberty of the citizen." The congregations have built up a power which is politically dangerous because hostile to modern institutions, and economically dangerous because it withdraws from general use an immense property held in mortmain. Moreover, in 1792, the Revolution suppressed them by a law which is still in force, and the Concordat did not renew them. They are useless to the real work of religion. Certain congregations in particular are reproached with living by the exploitation of human credulity, and with encouraging what M. Waldeck-Rousseau has termed "a crude thaumaturgy designed to impose upon the mob." This is an allusion to the enterprise conducted by the Franciscans, who collect money for St. Anthony of Padua, in return for which the saint is believed to restore lost articles to their owners. Other congregations traffic in the labor of orphans, as was done by the Sisters of the Good Shepherd at Nancy, recently prosecuted and convicted in the courts. Their establishment closely resembled a sweat-shop. Political congregations have, like the Assumptionists, conducted against the republic, in scurrilous journals of their own, a campaign of abuse and misrepresentation, or, like the Dominicans, have preached from their pulpits against the acts of the Administration or of the Parliament. It is, however, the teaching orders which have aroused the deepest resentment. These offer both primary and secondary instruction, and imbue the minds of the rising generation with ideas hostile to modern progress. M. Bourgeois some years ago read in the Chamber of Deputies passages from exercises written by the pupils of religious schools, approving or misrepresenting the massacre of St. Bartholomew and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. From the mere fact that the monks and sisters live apart from society, say the defenders of the law, they are unqualified to form the citizens who are to compose it. "The republic," said M. Combes, "has lavished millions to insure to all its children an education founded solely upon the principles of reason, justice, and solidarity. It would be an act of treason to the republic to annul or even to weaken the effect of this sacrifice, by leaving the way open, as it has been in the past, to the enterprises of the congregations."

To these arguments the Catholics reply that the congregations form an integral part of the Church, and that their history is inseparable from that of France herself. To banish them is to infringe the liberty of those who are called to the contemplative life, a legitimate and honorable life, to which such emancipated thinkers as Taine and Victor Hugo have paid tribute. It is to infringe the liberty of parents who regard the education furnished by the monks as the best for their children. This is the position which was taken by the two great orators of the Catholic party, M. de Mun and M. Denys Cochin.

Between these extreme opinions, the one seeking the total abolition of the congregations, and the other their absolute freedom from control, lies the view of the Liberal Republicans, whose spokesmen in the Chamber have been M. Ribot and M. Aynard, and whose newspaper organ has been the *Temps*. They agree with the Radicals in considering the congregations hostile to modern ideas, in considering the instruction furnished by them insufficient to form good citizens of a democracy, and in regarding with contempt the degrading fetishism which some of them are encouraging. They agree with the Radicals, also, in fearing the dangers of the accumulation of vast properties in mortmain, and are willing to take measures against it. On the other hand, they are not deceived by the appeals to liberty made by the Catholic party when their own liberty is in danger. They know well that, through the ages, the Catholic party has stood for intolerance and fanaticism. Its political creed is the Syllabus which anathematizes freedom of worship and freedom of inquiry, and which declares in so many words, "The Church must not become reconciled to progress, to liberalism, to modern civilization." At the present moment it claims the title of the party of liberty, but is really, as M. Clémenceau said in the Senate, "the party of authority, the party of authority in distress, of authority overthrown." Its policy is that long ago formulated by the famous Ultramontane journalist Veuillot: "When we are in power, we refuse you liberty, for that is our doctrine; when we are out of power, we demand liberty, for it is your doctrine to give it to us."

Despite all this, the Liberal Republicans have not felt themselves justified in refusing even to the congregations the right to exist. Liberty is absolute. One cannot refuse it even to those who do not deserve it. The monks have a barbarous and antiquated notion of life and of its duties; parents who send their children to them must be blind. Agreed. But one and all have the right to make errors of judgment. Liberty includes liberty to err; without that, it is not liberty. If the principles of modern democracy are to triumph, the State must rely not upon constraint, but upon the voluntary support of its citizens. To attempt to base the moral unity of a country upon compulsion, would be to repeat the disastrous experiments of the old régime, and to apply to Catholicism the policy which Catholicism has unsuccessfully attempted to apply to its adversaries.

The Liberal party and the Catholic party have been defeated in the struggle, and the Jacobins have triumphed along the entire line. The observer of modern and liberal spirit, convinced that the social, political, and religious doctrines represented by the congregations are ominous to civilization, remains perplexed and disquieted before this result. On the one hand, he can hardly regret the defeat of a party whose principles are repugnant to him; on the other hand, he can take no pleasure in a victory which, if in accord with reason, is certainly not in accord with liberty.

OTHON GUERLAC.

COURAGE AMONG ENGLISH POLITICIANS

LONDON, April 3, 1903.

Boldness is in England the quality which most attracts the admiration and confi-

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dence of the people, and what is true of England is, I take it, true of the United States. Mr. Chamberlain is at this moment the most impressive figure in English public life. Whatever may be his virtues or his faults—and with neither of these is this letter concerned—he to-day commands the trust of the electors. He is applauded by Conservatives who, till 1886, looked upon him as a typical demagogue; he is praised by Liberals who, since 1886, have denounced him as a deserter to Toryism. What is the cause of his present popularity? It lies in the belief of the people that he is a man of vigor and boldness. It is the faith that he has a strength of will and firmness of purpose not possessed by many of our statesmen, which has given him such a hold on popular imagination as falls at this minute to no other leading politician.

Is not the same thing true in substance of President Roosevelt? Your readers must answer the question, but my strong belief is that it will generally receive an affirmative reply. One thing at least is clear to any student of political history. The statesmen whom the English people have accepted as leaders—and there have of course been prime ministers who have really led nobody—have all displayed one (and it may be only one) common quality. They have all been strong-willed men, or at least men whose will was believed to be strong. Palmerston, Disraeli, Russell, Peel, Gladstone, or Bright may be charged with many faults and errors, but no one could seriously bring against any of them the accusation of weakness. Bright's case is peculiarly instructive; his services to the country as member of the Anti-Corn Law League did not in reality give him anything like the influence which sprang from his opposition to the war with Russia. His conduct was at the moment intensely unpopular; there are still living persons—and the present writer is among the number—to whom the wisdom of the course taken by Bright during the Crimean war appears open to the gravest doubt; it assuredly was the chief cause of his losing his seat in 1857 at Manchester. But—and this is the main point to be noted—temporary unpopularity brought to Bright permanent strength. Electors whose wishes he had thwarted and whose feeling of patriotism he had offended, tacitly recognized his bravery. He became known as a strong man who could, at the bidding of his conscience, defy even the sovereign people.

If boldness commands confidence, one might naturally expect that politicians would be bold. Yet the commonest observation shows us that the courage to act boldly and take responsibility, as also the courage to defy the wish of the party to which a man belongs, or, still more, of the nation, is, among the parliamentary politicians of England, the rarest of all qualities. The people look for leadership, and the men who ought to be their guides wait upon the will of the people, and give tremulous attention to the varying and uncertain expressions of popular opinion. Why, one asks, when boldness is admired, do politicians so often lack courage?

Politics in England and at the present day does not lead to wealth; a political career cannot in the twentieth, as it certainly could in the eighteenth century, be looked upon as a profession which, like the bar, might lead to large emolument. One may reasonably doubt whether any living statesman has gained by office much, if anything, in money. If our public men are wanting in boldness, the reason assuredly is not that political defeat means to them loss of wealth. Nor, again, can the phenomenon which we are examining be explained by the evils, great as they are, of partisanship or faction. A political, no less than a religious zealot may be the boldest and most reckless of mankind. It cannot, again, in fairness be alleged that want of courage is due in the main to want of principle. Even adventurers are often bold, and an average member of Parliament is rarely an unprincipled adventurer. He is a respectable man of respectable abilities, who practises in life the ordinary morality of his generation, which is in many ways as high as the moral standard of public life in the eighteenth or in the earlier part of the nineteenth century; probably, indeed, it is a good deal higher. The famed disinterestedness of Chatham and his son throws a good deal of indirect light upon the corruption which was prevalent in the days of each of these statesmen.

The true causes of political cowardice, the reasons which lead men of real respectability in all private affairs to exhibit a timidity which is certainly not to be respected in their public life, may be referred to three different causes which are apt to escape notice.

The boldness or independence, in the first place, which gains public confidence for a statesman is not a quality that helps him to acquire the position in which he can exercise statesmanship. A local wire-puller may not be a very admirable sort of person, but, like other experts, he understands his own business; and if he is in search for a parliamentary candidate, he assuredly will not prefer the ablest or the boldest man on whom he can lay his hands. He wants not the man who has most character, but the man of a pliant disposition—the man who, within the range of his party, can be all things to all men, and accommodate himself to the wishes or the whims of the voters. The dictum ascribed in England to some eminent American, though I know not to whom, "I should make a first-rate President, but an execrably bad candidate for the Presidency," contains, whoever uttered it, an important truth of the widest application: practice of the arts, even the legitimate arts, by which a candidate gains a seat in Parliament, is not good training for the exercise, when the seat is gained, of statesmanlike boldness. He who has devoted himself to pleasing electors is certain to be nervously afraid of their displeasure.

The loss, in the second place, of a seat in Parliament, though it may in no way affect a man's fortune, is likely to cause him far greater pain than is at first apparent to outside observers. The vote or the speech which loses the support of a member's constituents is given or made subject to a really severe penalty. The punishment or loss is nothing less than the expulsion, certainly for the moment, and possibly for ever, from a pursuit or profession in which the defeated candidate has learned to take pride and pleasure. Take the case of a man of known respectability and worth who has been, say, for twenty years a worthy member of the House of Commons. His position has given him a certain dignity or credit in the town or county where he lives; his words are listened to with more attention than the utterances of his neighbors; his speeches are reported in the local papers; they occasionally attract the notice of the London *Times*. During the Parliamentary session his occupations, his interests, his society, are all dependent upon his forming part of the House of Commons. Can any one wonder that such a man should dread to oppose the publicans, the temperance men, the clergy, or the workmen whose votes may deprive him of the honor of representing Little Pedlington, and thereby force him to change his whole manner of life, and deprive him, at an age when he is too old to find new occupations, of everything which has made the interest of his daily life? The M.P. who loses his seat suffers much the same kind of distress, conceal the fact as he may, as would a barrister if disbarred, or a clergyman if forced, say, by conscientious scruples, to give up his position in the Church. Our defeated candidate may, it is true, reënter Parliament; and as regards the leading statesmen of the day, the conviction that they cannot remain long excluded from the Parliamentary arena does undoubtedly contribute to give them such bravery as they display. Balfour, Chamberlain, Campbell-Bannerman, or John Morley, may feel assured that a defeat at an election means nothing more than a temporary holiday, after which they can each of them resume Parliamentary work; but with the Member for Little Pedlington and indeed with most men who have not sat long in Parliament, it is otherwise. Exclusion from Parliament for one session may likely enough mean exclusion for life. One reason why politicians with aristocratic connections show occasionally exceptional independence is that they hold their seats in Parliament by a comparatively secure tenure.

Sovereigns, in the last place, are always flattered, feared, and admired. This is as true of the sovereign people as of kings; the worship of the democracy is due to exactly the feelings which led courtiers not only to flatter, but, what is more strange, to revere Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and James. The flattery of course springs in no small degree from self-interest. Kings, when really powerful, could exclude men from public life; they could mar the career of a man of genius just as an offended democracy can exclude from Parliament men who are rightly conscious of the gifts which qualify them for a high place in the public service. But neither self-interest nor the meanness of human nature will at all completely account for the genuine admiration kindled by sovereign authority. It is idle to suppose that the adulation offered by men such as More or Wolsey to Henry VIII., or by Bacon to James I., was wholly insincere. Individuals may debase themselves before utterly unworthy idols in obedience to private interests, but a nation cannot be the slave of such corruption, and the whole English people idolized Elizabeth in spite of her fickleness, her vanity, and her meanness. The source of this worship lay at bottom in the almost instinctive tendency of human nature to believe that might must in some way be connected with right. Where men see supreme power, there they long to see extraordinary wisdom, and the desire for illusions never fails to meet with grati-

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fication. To the sovereign people is unconsciously attributed a mysterious kind of insight. A modern politician finds it all but impossible not to bow to the will of the people, because at the bottom of his heart he half believes that the voice of the people is in some strange way the voice of God. How can any politician in a democratic society fail to lack courage when he is called upon to resist his political Deity?

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

TELEPATHY ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: However science may be *made* by lonely men observing natural facts and meditating on their meaning, science prevails at last and is disseminated through the public by authority pure and simple. Innovations in science may long be barred from general recognition by the authority of those who hold conservative views. My learned colleague, John Trowbridge, in his article entitled "Telepathy," in your last week's number, presses with all the weight of his authority against the door which certain "psychical researchers" are threatening to open wide enough to admit a hitherto discredited class of facts. His reasonings will soon be forgotten by readers who will yet remember his name and quote his hostile vote if it be left to go unchallenged. So you will, perhaps, allow a lover of fair play, not to discuss telepathy itself, which would indeed be a complicated matter, but to inscribe against Professor Trowbridge's manner of discussing it a protest which some such readers may also happen eventually to remember.

Professor Trowbridge says that there is "no science in the subject of telepathy; it is a belief." So far, he thinks, as men who have made their reputations by accurate work may be counted among its believers, they are men of advancing years who have abandoned strenuous investigation with its small returns, and "find it easier to philosophize and to write out their thoughts than to put them to the test of experiment. When a scientific man," he adds, "takes to such work in psychics and philosophy, the death-knell of his scientific career is rung."

Heaven forbid that the death-knell of my colleague's scientific career should be rung yet, but he has described to a dot his own contribution to psychics and philosophy in this article. He seems to me to have found it easier to philosophize and write out his thoughts than either to experiment or to read the experiments of others, preferring to follow an *à priori* mental image which he has framed, of all the possible evidence for telepathy, and then to lump all possible students of it together in advance as a set of irreclaimably vague "believers."

I do not here assume to say that the various investigations recorded in the Proceedings of the Psychical Research Society have placed "telepathy" in an invulnerable position. Far from it. But I do say that Professor Trowbridge's description of such investigations so little resembles the reality as to be unrecognizable. I find it hard, after reading his article, to believe that he himself has read with any care, or even read at all, such documents as Gurney's Phantasms of the Living, or Mrs. Sidgwick's report on the Census of Hallucinations, or her and Professor Sidgwick's Observations on Thought Transference, and the discussions consequent thereon. Yet how can one effectually criticise evidence with which one seems to have no detailed acquaintance? I write, therefore, to beg Professor Trowbridge's readers and mine not to bow down before mere disparaging generalities and abstract statements, by whatsoever eminent authority they may be published, but rather to go to the original documents themselves, filled as they are with painstaking and minute discussion. Certainly it is not in their pages that the subject is treated with the greater vagueness or inaccuracy.

No man or set of men can be expected to be accurate "all over." Like the body, the mind grows slack when not kept up to standard by incessant training. Within their several sciences, men of science keep each other up to standard by their merciless habits of criticising. But "psychical research" is a dog with so few friends at court that almost any stick seems good enough to beat him with; and I venture to suggest that Professor Trowbridge (like many another physical philosopher who has written on this extraneous theme) has felt so confident of indulgence from his immediate professional fellows, whatever might be his line of argument, that he has let himself go, and indulged in conclusions based on a knowledge of the state of the question which in any matter of pure physics he would have considered unpardonably superficial, and which is certainly so superficial here as to be almost irrelevant. To use his own words, he has "found it easier" to follow unscientific methods.

WILLIAM JAMES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1903.

ENGLISH DISCOVERIES IN ANTARCTICA

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An article in the April number of the *Geographical Journal*, the data for which were telegraphed to England, shows that the English Antarctic expedition has made some important discoveries. That of "an extensive, heavily glaciated land with occasional bare and precipitous peaks" in 76 degrees south latitude, 152 degrees thirty minutes west longitude, is significant. In the first place, it is now evident that the so-called Great Ice Barrier is simply the sea front, five or six hundred miles long, of a great glacier, which, much like Muir Glacier, stretches as a perpendicular ice wall along tide-water between two mountainous promontories. Some idea of the size of this glacier may be obtained if one imagines the entire west coast of France fringed by a wall of ice four or five hundred feet high, extending from the Pyrenees to the cliffs of Dover. It would be contrary to all our knowledge of glacial phenomena to suppose that this colossal glacier is afloat, except, perhaps, at its extreme sea front, and probably it rests upon a low plain, which may lie even below sea level, but which surely connects the mountains of Scott Land and Victoria Land.

But the discovery of Scott Land has a still greater significance; for, taken in connection with the discovery by De Gerlache that the ocean bed in about 70 degrees south latitude and 80 to 100 degrees west longitude is shallow, it goes far to show that the coast line of Antarctica, on its Pacific-Australia side, is fairly continuous from Palmer Land in 56 degrees west longitude to Termination Land in 100 degrees east longitude, and there can be little doubt remaining that Antarctica is a continent of still uncertain breadth, but of a length of about three thousand miles.

EDWIN S. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, April 20, 1903.

Notes.

With a view to the preparation of a Memoir of the late Edwin L. Godkin, it is requested that his correspondents who may have preserved letters from him available to that end will send them to Mr. Lawrence Godkin, 56 Wall Street, New York. They will be returned in all cases when merely loaned.

One result of the merger of R. H. Russell with Harper & Bros. is that the new Gibson books will hereafter be published by the Scribners; that for 1903 in the autumn. This firm announces a new volume of stories by F. Hopkinson Smith, 'The Under Dog,' and a novel, 'The Modern Obstacle,' by Alice Duer Miller.

John Lane has nearly ready 'The American Advance: A Study in Territorial Expansion,' by E. J. Carpenter.

From the Chicago University Press will issue 'The Place of Industries in Elementary Education,' by Katharine E. Dopp, and 'The Diary and Letters of Wilhelm Müller,' father of the late Max Müller, by Philip S. Allen and James Taft Hatfield. The diary covers only a little more than a year (1815-16).

What must eventuate in a book is the series of papers soon to begin to appear in the *Century*, from the pen of Andrew D. White, consisting of reminiscences of his diplomatic life.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'Among the Great Masters of Drama,' by Walter Rowland; 'The Year's Festivals,' by Helen Philbrook Patten; and 'Some Famous American Schools,' by Oscar Fay Adams.

The Oxford University Press announces 'Napoleonic Statesmanship: Germany,' by H. A. L. Fisher; and Essays by a Hausa named Ibrahim, with translation, vocabulary and notes by W. H. Brooks and Lewis H. Nott.

'Ireland and her Story,' by Justin McCarthy, will be the thirteenth volume in the series, "Story of the Empire," published by Horace Marshall & Son, London.

A cheap but not uninviting handy volume, rightly professing itself "a book for every parent," is 'How to Bring up your Children' (London: Low; New York: A. Wessels Co.). "Being Some Thoughts on Education by John Locke" reads the sub-title, more accurately stated at the beginning of the reprint as "Some of Locke's Thoughts concerning Education." This most fruitful of tracts was well worth another edition, abridged inevitably. The extensive cuts are disguised here, first by suppression of the section numbers, and there are silent omissions even in sentences; but we have not detected any squeamishness such as

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former editors have shown in changing (for example) "stinking breath" to "'fetid"—in fact, the editor disclaims any tampering with the text. He leaves out the precept about daily bathing of the feet and the wearing of leaky shoes for hardening against colds, the having no set time for meals, etc. What remains is all stimulating, if not to be followed to the letter.

'N. W. Ayer & Son's American Newspaper Annual' (Philadelphia) for 1903 brings its ever-swelling measure of statistical information, clearly and orderly displayed; serving also, apart from the main theme, as a convenient gazetteer of the United States and Canada. The editor reports a net gain of 382 newspapers and periodicals during the twelvemonth, the largest gain since 1897, but curiously localized. The increase of dailies in this country "is largely due to the extension of the Rural Free Delivery System, which has caused, in many cases, the establishment of new dailies, or the change from weekly or other issue to daily. The discontinuance of the weekly edition of leading newspapers is becoming increasingly noticeable." Care has to be exercised by the editor in not entering new periodicals from the first number, not a few of them never going further. Much else is to be learned from this painstaking and authoritative repertory.

"The Nation Back of Us"—one-half of the motto of Mr. Lummis's monthly magazine *Out West* (Los Angeles, Cal.)—appears to be justified by the surpassing fulness of the seventeenth bound volume just to hand, exhibiting, as usual, the greatest variety of illustrations. There is the customary series of articles descriptive of localities. Irrigation is to the fore in the department entitled "Twentieth Century West." The practical, conservating Landmarks Club and the uplifting Sequoya League ("To Make Better Indians")—would that this last had its correlative at the South—are here traceable in their membership and doings. For the scholarly part, the editor concludes the Diary of Fray Junípero Serra, and gives liberal extracts relating to early English voyages to the Pacific coast of America, from Sir Francis Drake. There is hardly any interest pertaining to the Pacific slope that does not find some echo in this rich miscellany of fact and imagination.

'My Woodland Intimates,' by Effie Bignell (Baker & Taylor Co.), is a series of nature sketches, the scene of which is, in most cases, the immediate surroundings of the writer's home in eastern New Jersey. Mrs. Bignell gives her impressions and experiences among the trees and flowers of her small domain and the little creatures in fur and feathers that frequent it. Two attractive chapters tell how squirrels learned to come in at her window and take food from her hands, and how the birds resorted to the feasts she daily spread for them on lawn and window-sill. While the sketches lack the interest and virility that characterize the work of our best writers on such subjects, they are pleasant in style and sincere and modest in tone.

Among the recently published books on the Old Masters, written with too rare exceptions by uncritical compilers or glib journalists, Dr. G. Gronau's little volume on 'Leonardo da Vinci' (London: Duckworth & Co.) stands out as the work of an expert connoisseur, cultured scholar, refined critic, and delicate writer. A sketch of the artist's life is followed by an account of his few but matchless achievements. Here the reader will find not only all he need know about their genesis, but appreciations no less delightful than illuminating. The brief but adequate sketch ends with a number of significant passages from Leonardo's 'Treatise on Painting.' It is seldom that one can differ on even small points from Dr. Gronau's conclusions. Over forty illustrations, excellently reproduced, comprising all the master's paintings and the most interesting of his drawings, enable us to follow the writer step by step.

The collaboration of two sensible Englishmen, E. T. Benson and E. H. Miles, whose personal habits in relation to flesh, alcohol, tobacco, and some other matters are antipodal, has produced a very rational, untechnical little book on 'Daily Training' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). We commend it for careful reading by all who have the care of youth of either sex, although the authors appear to have boys chiefly in view. When it has been absorbed by the masters and certain minor factors of local character have been eliminated, let it be transferred bodily or by indirection to the pupils. The influence of training on mind and morals occupies a chapter whose supreme sense every man of middle age, especially if city bred, must concede. He may regret that the guardians of his own youth had not inculcated those principles, but it should not be too late for him to confer their benefits upon his adolescent successors.

The 'Manual of Bacteriology' of Drs. Robert Muir and James Ritchie, revised and edited, with additions, from the third English edition by Norman MacLeod Harris (Macmillan), is a clear and well-developed exposition of the present state of the science. It is a working manual for the laboratory, which also is intelligible and should be interesting to many not qualified for the personal management of culture tubes and immersion lenses. Practical interest in this study lies in its relation to so many diseases which play havoc with human life. Not merely hydrophobia and tetanus, which are rare, typhoid fever and tuberculosis, always with us, cholera, an epidemic of slaughter, and leprosy, communicable and as yet incurable, but also the more familiar pneumonia and inflammatory rheumatism, although not so regarded popularly, all are of bacterial origin. The list is constantly growing. The domain of bacteriology includes the theory of immunity and of recovery from disease, methods for purifying sewage, a study of soils, water, and air. It touches human life at almost every physical point. All along these lines the Manual is clear and intelligent, and, where a topic remains *sub judice*, it frankly says so. It is sufficiently contemporaneous to include the remarkable discoveries of Reed and his colleagues about yellow fever, and it does not appear to omit any established or probable fact. Comparison with the excellent first edition (1897) shows this to be a real revision, and the book is not only much larger, but in every way more complete. To those who know the first, that should mean high praise.

The *Burlington Magazine*, which begins its series with the recent March, quite keeps its promise of distinctiveness of scope and beauty of form. It is a matter of some pride to Americans that Mr. Bernhard Berenson should have the place of honor in his scholarly article, "Alúnno di Domenico." He ascribes to a disciple of the great Ghirlandajo a number of panels, notably the Nastagio degli Onesti series, credited by Vasari to Botticelli. The disciple of Domenico was also, it would seem, a prolific illustrator towards the end of the fifteenth century. Of even greater importance is a first instalment of Mr. James Weale's "The Early Painters of the Netherlands," devoted chiefly to Hubert van Eyck. Mr. Herbert Horne believes that he has discovered copies from which may be reconstructed "A Lost Adoration of the Magi" by Sandro Botticelli. Decorative and applied art is represented by an article on "French Furniture of the Louis XIV. Period," by Émile Molinier, a study of Oriental carpets, one on tinder-boxes, and a description of the Hôtel de Lauzun at Paris. Pure archivism claims only Mr. C. J. Ffoulkes's "The Date of Vincenzo Foppa's Death," in which, by a study of new records, it is shown that Foppa worked well on into the sixteenth century, twenty years or so longer than was formerly supposed. The volume—for such it is, in fact—closes with a review of recent acquisitions by the London Museums. It will have appeared already that the new magazine appeals primarily to collectors and connoisseurs, but bibliophiles are also in mind, for it is printed in large quarto on excellent paper, and full half the illustrations are in collotype or similar process on Japanese vellum. A supplement containing news of art sales will accompany each monthly number. At a dollar a number or $10.80 a year, it is good value. The American agents are Samuel Buckley & Co., No. 100 William Street, New York.

In the February Bulletin of the American Geographical Society Mr. George S. Morison, of the Isthmian Canal Commission, gives an interesting account of the Isthmus of Panama with regard to the canal and the engineering difficulties. This route, though superior in no one respect to any of the others, has many less bad features than any other. The Culebra cut should be attacked first, and, when that is finished (in about ten years after work is begun), all the rest of the canal will be finished at the same time. Lake Bohio, to receive the excess of discharge of the Chagres River, will be more than twelve miles long. Mr. Carl Lumholtz, in the same number, has an article on the Huichol Indians, which should be read in connection with our late notice of his book. Mr. William A. Shedd remarks upon far travellers among the Syrians of Persia and eastern Turkey. In a remote village, Mar Zaya, in a rugged valley on the borders of Persia, in the shadow of a massive old church, reputed to be 1,500 years old, there live men who have had adventures in every part of the world. He says that he has seen letters from or concerning them from Austria, England, America, Dahomey, Cape Colony, India, South America. But it is uncertain whether these are the vagrant beggars of whom he has just been speaking, or the handicraftsmen.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for April the editor, Mr. G. H. Grosvenor, gives an interesting account of the domestication of reindeer in Alaska. The enterprise, as our readers are aware, originated with Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the general agent of edu-

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cation, who twelve years ago brought a herd of sixteen from Siberia to Unalaska. Now there are nearly 6,000 head in the various herds distributed along the coast, and, considering the fact that there are 400,000 square miles of tundra covered with the long fibrous white moss which is the food of this animal, their number may be increased to a million within the next twenty-five years. The business of reindeer raising is a profitable one. "A fawn during the first four years costs the owner less than $1 a year. At the end of the four years it will bring at the mines from $50 to $100 for its meat, or, if trained to the sled or for the pack, is easily worth $100 to $150." The cultivation and preparation for the market of the agave or henequen, often called sisal hemp, is described by Mr. E. H. Thompson, our consul at Progreso. Most of the exported material, amounting to 600,000 bales, worth $14,000,000 in 1902, comes to this country, where it is used for sacking, cordage and binders' twine. Both articles are profusely illustrated.

The German colonies in Palestine, as described by Dr. Saad in Petermann's *Mitteilungen* number one, seem likely to have a not unimportant influence upon the future of that country. There are several small settlements, and three with from 300 to 600 colonists, mostly members of the Tempelgesellschaft, a society formed in 1853 for the restoration of primitive Christianity and the rebuilding of the Temple at Jerusalem. Their simple lives and industrious habits are not without effect upon the natives about them, who are beginning to learn from them improved methods of cultivating the ground. A most attractive picture is drawn of the Haifa colony, with its street nearly a mile long, lined on both sides with charming two-story European houses embosomed in cypress and fruit trees, while far up the green slope of Carmel extend their gardens and vineyards. They have excellent schools, with more than a hundred pupils in two of them. A serious obstacle to their continued prosperity, however, is the extreme difficulty of acquiring more land, as they have outgrown the capacity of that originally granted them. Other articles are descriptive of Savaii, the largest and least known of the Samoan group, and of the volcanic eruption on it October 31, 1902, and of the Siberian coast territory, with numerous facts and statistics relating to population, products, industries, and commerce.

A valuable summary of the provisions of the New Zealand "Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1900," which has thus far given fairly good satisfaction, is to be found in the Consular Reports for March. Among them is one intended to prevent the needless multiplication of industrial unions, and also one affirming that "every industrial union can sue, or be sued, for the purposes of the act by the name by which it is registered." Our consul-general at Berlin shows how the new German tariff is likely to affect the future import trade of Germany from this country, and describes, with illustrations, a new device for preventing railway collisions by means of a light third rail forming a continuous conductor. A review of our foreign commerce in 1902, by the chief of the Bureau, shows that "there has been recovery in the export of factory products during the past year," but warns of the danger of "another glut." Referring to the publications of the Bureau, he states that there is a widespread demand for them on the part of colleges and schools as reference books in special courses of commercial instruction.

The *Korea Review* opens the year with papers on native astrology, and is full of matters of local interest, including good full-page photographic reproductions; but the paper of greatest historic interest describes a journey made between the two chief ports on the eastern coast of Korea so rarely visited by foreigners. It was made on pack pony from Fusan to Wonsan by the Rev. H. Burkwall, through what was, during the splendid Buddhist age, A. D. 400-1392, the flourishing kingdom of Silla, with which the Arabs traded, and which the Chinese sea captains reached by using the mariner's compass, as is recorded, in the twelfth century. Besides other ruins of ancient cities, there are, near the city of Kyong-ju, thirty-four high mounds, about fifty feet high, in which, according to Korean folklore, the "magic golden measure," which fills so large a page in the vernacular stories, was hidden by the king, when demanded by the Chinese Emperor, who had heard of the fame thereof. One bell, over ten feet high, with its Chinese characters nearly undecipherable through wear, has sent out its mellow notes for more than twelve hundred years. Thirty mounds, seventy-five feet high, were counted within sight of a circular edifice of masonry formerly used as an astrological observatory. Ruined stone pagodas and other evidences of wealth and power, with alas! also, the disafforested mountains, testify to the wealth and greater population in a more brilliant age, from which many believe the Koreans are degenerate through bad government.

The Japanese Minister of Finance has issued his second 'Annuaire Financier et Économique du Japon,' covering the operations of 1902 (Tokio: Z. P. Maruya & Co.). Beside numerous tables, its broad pages contain much matter relating to railways, banks, mines, commerce, and other sources of income; but the most interesting feature is a map of the empire, including Formosa and Yezo, which shows the various railways, both completed and projected, whether owned by the Government or by private parties. The lines of great Japanese steamship companies, four in number, are also marked, together with the important ports, headquarters of army divisions, and naval stations, presenting a most interesting bird's-eye view. It is now possible to travel by railway from the Japanese Dan to Beersheba, or from Awamori to Kagoshima, making ferry at Shimonoseki. In western Kiushiu, between Osaka and Kioto and Nagoya, and in the region around Tokio, the network of railways reminds one of Illinois or New Jersey. Although mining will never make the Japanese Empire rich, yet scientific methods have quadrupled the output of the old lodes, and industry and freedom of trade are steadily and healthfully increasing the wealth of the nation. The multiplication of ships and steamers makes the old junk more and more of a curiosity. Besides the extension of railways, we note that telegraphic wire in use has lengthened from twenty-two thousand miles in 1892 to sixty-seven thousand in 1901.

Americans who, after enjoying "Hildebrand's" 'Camera Obscura,' have wrestled with its idioms in attempted translation, will be interested with others in learning of the decease and posthumous honors accorded to its author, Dr. Nicolaas Beets of Utrecht. It is generally agreed that 'Camera Obscura' is the finest piece of prose in nineteenth-century Dutch, though this was also the time of the great stylist and critic, Busken Huet. Nevertheless, intensely idiomatic as it is, and wonderfully expressive of pure Dutch thought and life, it has been translated into several modern languages. Born on September 13, 1814, at Haarlem, the son of a famous chemist, Beets studied at Leyden, and came under the influence of the poet, J. P. Hasebroek. Made a doctor of theology in 1839, he served in the pastorate until 1854, when he was called to the professorship of theology at Leyden, and lectured until 1875. Though best known by his prose writings in belles-lettres, his critical essays and theological works, he also wrote verse. A complete edition of his poems in four volumes was completed in 1881. Of these, probably his "Corn Flowers" (*Koren-bloemen*) are the most popular. At the time of Queen Wilhelmina's coronation in 1898 he composed an ode full of force and fire, which pleased and surprised his admirers, otherwise the whole Dutch world. The handsome old gentleman, who spent his latter days in Utrecht, always gave a sunny welcome to Americans. At his imposing funeral, with tens of thousands of people lining the streets, the Queen was represented by the royal chamberlain, Baron van Boetselaer, Premier Kuyper, Cabinet Ministers, the Presidents of the two Chambers and a score or more of the members, and the provincial Governor, besides many men eminent in the kingdom, and a vast array of students from the University. The one decoration at the funeral, which was purposely of the most simple character, was a wreath of palms sent by the Queen.

—It is a disappointment to find no frontispiece to volume iv. of 'The Letters and Literary Remains of Edward FitzGerald' (Macmillan). However, in the fifth volume we are shown his schooner yacht, the *Scandal*. The letters come to an end in volume four, and the desideratum of an index has been recognized, yet hardly in the true spirit. Readers will be thankful for the clearing up of the FitzGerald connection, but there has been no consistent and satisfactory treatment of subjective and objective, of that which is autobiographical and that which is historical and critical. Those most precious literary and personal judgments which are the salt of the correspondence should have been placed in compartments in a subsection under the general rubric of FitzGerald, with cross-references from the several persons implicated. Everybody knows Old Fitz's dislike for Browning and for Mrs. Browning, but there is no independent entry for either here; though the Browning Society gets in. We look in vain anywhere for "Daddy" Wordsworth, for Carlyle's favorite nickname. The meerschaum relic of Carlyle is unmentioned under that writer's name, and the Naseby monument affair must be sought in several other places instead of being grouped under the prime

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mover. The index, finally, should not simply have marched with the text, but should have been chronologically ordered. We feel confident that the public, in spite of the multiplicity of editions, will still call for a new one of the complete Letters, when an indexer of skill and *con amore* should be employed to build upon the present basis a key leaving nothing to be desired. Volume five contains the six dramas from Calderon. Two more volumes are due.

—An American novel of the day begins: "Every man, woman, and child has their price"; to which saying of a noble lord "my mother" responds, "Bad grammar and a false creed." The good woman may be right; but, impatient of reconstructing so complex a distributive subject, with its confusion of genders, English idiom tends to indulge in just such vagaries of predicate. Under *everybody*, the Oxford Dictionary supplies examples from Lord Berners (*c.* 1530) —and it is the earliest quotation for the locution: "Everye bodye was in theyr lodgynges"; from Bishop Warburton (1759): "Every body else I meet with are full ready to go of themselves"; from Byron (1820): "Every body does and says what they please"; from Ruskin (1866): "Everybody seems to recover their spirits." Now, in the April quarterly instalment of the Dictionary (Henry Frowde), Dr. Murray remarks, under *or:*

"When singular subjects (substantive or pronoun) are coördinated by *or*, strict logic and the rules of modern grammarians require the verb and following pronoun to be in the singular; but at all times there has been a tendency to use the plural with two or more singular subjects when their mutual exclusion is not emphasized. When the subjects differ in number or person, the rule is that the verb and pronouns should agree with the last or nearest, . . . but such constructions are apt to seem stiff and pedantic, and are consequently avoided. The question of gender causes further complications—especially the want of a third-person pronoun of common gender. . . . These difficulties appear to have been felt at all times, and have been sometimes avoided by making the verb immediately precede or follow the first subject, and agree with it."

In Van Tyne's recent collection of the Letters of Daniel Webster is copied a report of that statesman's bitter interview with Stetson of the Astor House, which the editor cannot authenticate except from a newspaper clipping. Doubt might seem to be cast upon its literal accuracy by the phrase, in Webster's mouth, "they had neither the courage *or* kindness to place," etc. But Dr. Murray has a rather full section to show that "*or* sometimes occurs also after *neither*, where the normal conjunction is *nor*." Lord Berners is cited here again, and the usage comes down by way of Lord Herbert, Burke, Heber, Ruskin, and Freeman.

—Among the numerous accounts of suffixes, that of *-or* will arrest attention in this country. This suffix represents ultimately "Latin *-or, -orem*, in nouns of condition from intransitive verbs in *-ēre*, less usually from other verbs. . . . Such of these as existed in Middle English were formerly spelt with *-our*. . . . In other words of the same class, . . . as also in some words not directly connected with extant Latin verbs, . . . *-our* is generally retained in British usage, but American usage spells these also with *-or*." Another class, representing Latin agent-nouns, and of different ages going back to old French words in *-or, -ur*, were likewise spelt *-our* in Middle English, but "are now all conformed to the Latin spelling in *-or*." Still other classes of agent-nouns have obeyed the same drift, so that American uniformity of usage is decidedly with the British majority. In connection with another suffix, *-ose*, points are given to Littré in the derivation of *glucose*. The whole work on the particles beginning with O deserves study. It has been very laborious, and has broken much new ground. The word *order* reveals inextricable disorder in its development. *Orb* and *ordeal* afford capital examples of the historical method applied to lexicography. So *orange*, as the color badge of loyalty to William of Orange; *Orangeman*. Orange blossoms as associated with the marriage ceremony appear to have come in from France in 1820-30. *Orthodox* arrives late, in Cotgrave 1611 and Bacon 1615. Its immediate origin is obscure; ultimately it goes back to the Greek *via* French (1488) and Latin. The Latin form could, we think, have been little familiar when Erasmus introduced it (1524) in his 'Colloquies' ("Inquisitio de Fide"), where it continued to be glossed even as late as Roger Daniel's London edition of 1655, and later across the Channel; and perhaps Erasmus most widely paved the way for its modernization. Littré's first citation is from Pascal's 'Provinciales' (1656-57). Here is a suggestive extract from Dr. Murray's prefatory note: "One inconvenience of a composite language is seen in the fact that there are seven distinct words spelt *ore*, which moreover occurs as an obsolete spelling of seven others." How would this inconvenience be mitigated by the application of phonetic reform, bringing all into line with *or* (which numbers five words or spellings), to say nothing of *o'er*? In conclusion, we may not overlook this "modern instance" introduced under *opus:* "How goes the *magnum opus?* What letter are you working at now [*videl.* in the Scriptorium]?"

—'The Baptists,' by Dr. Henry C. Vedder, is one of a series, "The Story of the Churches," projected by the Baker & Taylor Co. The volumes are small duodecimos, attractively printed and bound, numbering about 200 pages each. 'The Baptists' is well written, but the tendency of so much compression is to squeeze out every picturesque element and to make the representation purely external. The Baptists are defined as a religious body loyally obedient to the commands of Jesus Christ. It is not made clear why feet-washing does not stand as firmly on this basis as baptism or the Lord's Supper. There are chapters on the history of the Baptists and on their rise and progress in Great Britain and on the Continent. The movement of this history is backward, and stops at the twelfth century, though there is much in the early Christian centuries that is grist for the Baptist's mill. If Münzer is declared to have been no good Anabaptist, on the other hand the glorying in Bunyan is moderate. Clearly the rejection of infant baptism did not imply the adoption of immersion. It is even doubtful in what manner Roger Williams and his friends baptized themselves. A very interesting aspect is the affiliation of the Baptists in their early course with other bodies, notably with the Congregationalists and Quakers. The attempt to account for the slow growth of the Baptists in England furnishes some of the most important pages. We come to the beginnings in America at page 135, when we are more than half-way through the book. Whitefield is credited with saving the American Baptists from the atrophy which has overtaken the English branch. There is also much emphasis on missionary enterprise, but none on that careful study of the Bible which has been so characteristic of the Baptists, and which, in these days of the higher criticism, is potential of incalculable change.

—Dr. C. L. Thompson's contribution to the same series is 'The Presbyterians.' The difference of its method from that of 'The Baptists' suggests a doubt whether the series has any general editorial supervision, especially as no such supervision is explicit. Here there is slight and almost casual reference to the European origins, a fact which shows the writer astonishingly neglectful of the most interesting and dramatic elements of the history set for him to rehearse. Presbyterianism as it appeared in Geneva, France, Holland, and England, offers so much that is attractive that, possibly, Dr. Thompson refrained from treating it expansively for fear that the American development would, by force of contrast, appear even more monotonously dull than standing by itself. But probably the limitation of his space was the decisive circumstance. In his account of the Massachusetts settlements there is a disposition, or a tendency, to confound the Puritan with the Presbyterian to an undue extent. There is no more interesting chapter than that on "The Division of 1741," which marked a conservative reaction from the "Adopting Act" of 1729, "the banner," Dr. Thompson says, "under which the Presbyterian Church in this country has marched to its proudest victories." It does not appear that there was much infusion of that spirit which in England simultaneously was making the Presbyterian chapels refuges for Unitarian heretics. Dr. Thompson may well "point with pride" to the assimilation of the National Constitution of 1787 to Presbyterian governmental forms; but what of the miserable survivals of the ecclesiastical system that exist in the township representation of Connecticut and Rhode Island? The relations of the church to slavery are treated in a franker manner than is common with the church historian, but as respects the recent "confessional changes" there is the habitual disposition to affirm that they do not affect the Westminster "substance of doctrine."

—The late war first attracted popular attention on this side of the ocean to the intellectual and social disintegration of the Spanish people. The serious problems which confront the future of Spanish culture have not been neglected by the best minds in Spain itself, and in his latest book, Prof. Rafael Altamira, editor of the *Revista Crítica de Historia y Literatura Españolas*, and the distinguished historian of Spanish civilization, has given a searching and impartial analysis of the fundamental virtues and defects of the Spanish character and genius. Written, as he himself says, "in that terrible summer

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of 1898, when such shame filled the hearts of all true patriots," the 'Psicología del Pueblo Español' (Madrid: Fernando Fé) is not untouched by the mingled impulses of patriotic indignation at the mistakes of the past, and a dignified hope for the future of the Spanish nation. Two extended chapters are devoted to the various opinions of the Spanish character held in all ages by the various peoples of Europe; a third discusses the present crisis and its remedies; and the final chapter considers the immediate possibilities of intellectual regeneration. The devastations of the Napoleonic wars were followed in Germany by a period of the very highest intellectual activity, and a similar fortune, Señor Altamira argues, is in store for Spain. The future of the country must depend on the energy, altruism, and far-sightedness of the "intellectuals," and it is to the moral mission of the university that the author devotes some of the most luminous and suggestive pages of this remarkable book. But to Americans, perhaps, the various passages which refer to American civilization will have the most interest. Scattered throughout the book, they speak quietly and impartially of the disillusion received by advanced Spanish minds during the progress of the late war, by reason of the defection of the young republic from her old ideals of peace and justice.

—In his 'Tale of Gyges and the King of Lydia,' reprinted from the *American Journal of Philology* of last year, Mr. Kirby Flower Smith attempts to reconstruct the legend of the Lydian adventurer Gyges from the five varying versions that have come down to us. We all know the story in Herodotus, the boastful folly of King Candaules, the reluctance of Gyges, and the vengeance of the queen who invites Gyges to slay her husband and become his successor, or himself be slain. Here is no mention of magic; but in the version in Plato's 'Republic' the point dwelt upon is the magic ring of invisibility possessed by Gyges, the earliest mention in literature of the magic ring that was to play so conspicuous a part in the "romans d'aventure." It will be remembered that in the Herodotean version the queen saw Gyges as he left her room by the door behind which Candaules had posted him. In a late, post-classical writer, Chennos, the queen's name is first given as Nysia, and it is said that she possessed a dragon-stone as well as a double pupil, which has a close connection with the "evil eye." Mr. Smith combines this passage with one that occurs still later, in Philostratus, to the effect that a dragon-stone "is invincible even against the ring of Gyges," and, by a careful comparison of all the references, constructs a version of the old popular folk tale. Gyges is the typical Adventurer of fairy tale, Candaules figures as the easily outwitted Giant, while his queen is the fairy Princess who possesses magic charms and plays the part of Medea in helping Gyges to a throne. If this is the correct version from which Herodotus and Plato made extracts, it is certainly singular that Herodotus should have omitted the picturesque details of the ring charm and the counter charm of the dragon-stone. Yet in the end it is on Herodotus that one must depend for the most complete rationalization of the story. Mr. Smith's reconstruction is, however, plausible enough, and in the course of it he collects a number of references which are useful illustrations of such points as the magic ring *motif* and the sources of folk lore and mythography.

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

The University of Chicago has done a real service to literature by printing among its decennial publications the poems, once so famous, of Anne Countess of Winchelsea. This work is edited very skilfully by Myra Reynolds, of the English Department, and she has had the use, not only of Mr. Edmund Gosse's folio manuscript volume of the poems, but of other manuscripts from the present Earl of Winchelsea, who has also given her introductions by which it became possible to visit places associated with the author. As a result, many of these poems appear for the first time in this volume. The whole modern interest in Lady Winchelsea dates back to a well-known passage in Wordsworth's essays in which he says, writing in the year 1815, "It is remarkable that, excepting the 'Nocturnal Reverie' of Lady Winchelsea, and a passage or two in the 'Windsor Forest' of Pope, the poetry intervening between the publication of the 'Paradise Lost' and the 'Seasons' does not contain a single new image of external nature." Wordsworth had studied Lady Winchelsea's poems in manuscript and elsewhere. They were afterwards praised as warmly by Leigh Hunt and Christopher North. Mr. Gosse secured for these poems a place in Ward's "English Poets," and also discussed them, later, in his 'Gossip in a Library.' Mr. Saintsbury also, in his 'Short History of English Literature,' urged the importance of their republication in full, a desire not carried out, either in England or in America, until the production of this volume.

That the book is of much collective value cannot be claimed, but it is of great relative worth in showing the successive steps by which women made their way into English literature. When we consider that Dr. Johnson did not admit one woman among his fifty-two English poets, and Campbell only one among his one hundred and seventy, we can see the historic importance of Lady Winchelsea's productions. There is no doubt that her "Nocturnal Reverie" stands out among her poems as distinctly as Dr. Holmes's "Chambered Nautilus" detaches itself from the rest of his; but Wordsworth was quite right in finding it almost the only precursor in English poetry of his own out-door works. To appreciate it fully, one must recognize how rare during the whole period since Milton had been anything that could be in any degree classed with the Wordsworthian studies from nature. Take, for instance, the following passage (p. 269):

"When Odours, which declin'd repelling Day,
Thro' temp'rate Air uninterrupted stray;
When darken'd Groves their softest Shadows wear,
And falling Waters we distinctly hear;
When thro' the Gloom more venerable shows
Some ancient Fabrick, awful in Repose,
While Sunburnt Hills their swarthy Looks conceal,
And swelling Haycocks thicken up the Vale:
When the loos'd *Horse* now, as his Pasture leads,
Comes slowly grazing thro' th' adjoining Meads,
Whose stealing Pace, and lengthen'd Shade we fear,
Till torn up Forage in his Teeth we hear:
When nibbling *Sheep* at large pursue their Food,
And unmolested Kine rechew the Cud;
When *Curlews* cry beneath the Village-walls,
And to her straggling Brood the *Partridge* calls;
Their shortliv'd Jubilee the Creatures keep,
Which but endures, whilst Tyrant-*Man* do's sleep;
When a sedate Content the Spirit feels,
And no fierce Light disturb, whilst it reveals;
But silent Musings urge the Mind to seek
Something, too high for Syllables to speak;
Till the free Soul to a compos'dness charm'd,
Finding the Elements of Rage disarm'd,
O'er all below a solemn Quiet grown,
Joys in th' inferiour World, and thinks it like her Own:
In such a *Night* let Me abroad remain,
Till morning breaks, and All's confused again."

As an interesting commentary on this, we have in the preface to the present volume a full account of the production at Drury Lane theatre of a farce entitled "Three Hours After Marriage," which ran seven nights, and was then hissed off the stage. It was published under Gay's name, but Pope and Arbuthnot had also a hand in it. Of this farce Baker's 'Biographia Dramatica' says: "Phœbe Clinket was said to be intended for the Countess of Winchelsea, who was so much affected with the itch of versifying that she had implements of writing in every room in the house that she frequented" (p. lxiii.). We thus see that the first introduction of woman into the poetic art was accompanied by all the hostility and sarcasm which she has later encountered on the way to college education or the elective franchise.

The close of the Boer war deprives Mr. Henry Newbolt of much of his ammunition, and he turns to the middle ages and even to Omar for commonplace comfort, in his volume 'The Sailing of the Long-Ships, and Other Poems' (Appleton); but his whole vigor does not at once depart, and in these two verses he gives the old-time flavor of England and of home (p. 39):

OUTWARD BOUND.

Dear Earth, near Earth, the clay that made us men,
The land we sowed,
The hearth that glowed—
O Mother, must we bid farewell to thee?
Fast dawns the last dawn, and what shall comfort then
The lonely hearts that roam the outer sea?

Gray wakes the daybreak, the shivering sails are set,
To misty deeps
The channel sweeps—
O Mother, think on us who think on thee!
Earth-home, birth-home, with love remember yet
The sons in exile on the eternal sea.

Sir Rennell Rodd comes forth from his twenty years' banishment as secretary of legation in Egypt, and elsewhere, with a volume of poems, 'Myrtle and Oak' (Boston: Forbes), less ambitious in character than his youthful ones, but naturally somewhat more languid. His name still appears in 'Who's Who,' with the following item appended: "Recreations: tastes catholic, but especially fencing." The spirit of literary fencing which was once conspicuous has faded a good deal, and in a graceful poem, "In Chartres Cathedral" (p. 92), he shows catholic tastes in a higher sense. Yet it is perhaps creditable to him that his best poems are those inscribed to greater men than himself, Victor Hugo, Tennyson, and Browning; and his interpretations of Chopin and Wagner show a similar appreciative quality. It is to his credit that he selects for his memorial to Browning the sympathetic one on that poet's exquisite description of Guercino's "Angel at Fano" (p. 68):

Dearly-honored, great dead poet, still as living speak to me!
This is Fano, world-forgotten little Fano by the sea:

I have come to see that angel which Guercino dreamed and drew,
Since whate'er you loved and honored I would hold in honor too.

Like some sea-bird's nest the township clusters in its rampart wall—
Such a twinkling on the byways, such an autumn over all:

Gloomy streets with silent portals, all the pulse of life they hide
Throbbing toward that one piazza where it centres into pride;

House or palace, as their wont is in these Adriatic ports.

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Turn their backs on darkling alleys and their faces
on the courts,

Courts beyond each tunnelled entrance, where,
through vaulted arches seen,
Glimpses flash of dancing sunlight, jets of foun-
tain, glint of green.

Here I found him, ever watchful for the work
of love to do,
That white-winged one whose great glory you
interpreted so true;

Still he folds the little fingers of that kneeling
child to prayer,
On the grave which tells the story why it needs
the angel's care;

Still above the forehead's glory arch the great
wings wide unfurled,
As alert to shield and succor all the orphans of
the world.

Of the 'Selected Poems' of William Watson (Lane), often arranged and rearranged in different editions, we may still retain a high opinion, yet without placing them quite so high as seems implied in so many reduplications. He is not dramatic, he is not fanciful, he has no background of humor, yet he has an earnestness, an elevation of tone which fix his hold in what he himself calls (p. 143) "immelodious days." He is capable, also, by sheer earnestness, of finding humble materials out of which to weave his song, as in this simple lay (p. 115):

FELICITY.

A squalid, hideous town, where streams run black
With vomit of a hundred roaring mills—
Hither occasion calls me; and ev'n here,
All in the sable reek that wantonly
Defames the sunlight and deflowers the morn,
One may at least surmise the sky still blue.
Ev'n here, the myriad slaves of the machine
Deem life a boon; and here, in days far sped,
I overheard a kind-eyed girl relate
To her companions, how a favouring chance
By some few shillings weekly had increased
The earnings of her household, and she said:
"So now we are happy, having all we wished."—
Felicity indeed! though more it lay
In wanting little than in winning all.

A precious historical document may yet be the little volume 'Songs of the Veld, and Other Poems,' reprinted from the *New Age* (London: New Age Press). The book opens with a list of subscribers, many of whom discreetly give their initials only; then follow many "Poems from Cape Town," mostly by a single writer who "prefers to remain anonymous"; followed by others from some forty different authors, often designated by initials, and including one American, Ernest Crosby. It also includes half a dozen poems on imperialism in the Philippines—half of them, at least, on Gen. Smith's detestable "howling wilderness" order—showing that sympathy for liberty is limited to no single direction. Much of the poetry, as is always the case with patriotic or liberty-loving strains, has more earnestness than true poetic flow in its expression. The general note is as in the following (p. 7):

A SONG OF FREEDOM.

Freedom spake to the Greeks of old
When the Persian hosts rolled on,
And their answer was stern Thermopylæ
And the plains of Marathon,
And Leonidas and his Spartan few
Still make us glow and thrill,
And the very name of Salamis
Can move us strangely still.

Freedom spake to the fierce old Scots
When bid to bow the knee,
And their answer was Bruce and Bannockburn,
And fighting from sea to sea,
And still the name of Wallace wight
And the death he died that day
Breathe upon Scotland the sacred light
That never fades away.

. . . . . .

Thus Freedom speaks to all and each,
And her touch is a touch of fire,
And the brave still listen with head erect
Though she points to block and pyre.
And their answer is still the prison's gloom,
And the battlefield's red gore,
And the name they hear of "Rebel!" "Fool!"
Which brave men ever bore.

And still they follow, Basuto, Finn,
Filipino, Zulu, Pole—
The Little Peoples of every race—
Her flying feet to the goal.

And lo! they follow, through blood and tears,
To that shining goal of the Free,
The lead of Him who died the death
Of a rebel, on Calvary!

'The House Building, and Other Poems,' by Marshall Bruce Williams (London: Johnson), rather confounds the critic by its absence of the orderly technical qualities so common in English verse, showing instead a tendency to that swelling rhetoric which is regarded by English readers as American. How America looks to the author's eyes is visible in such sonnets as that on page 81:

THE UNITED STATES.

Like a bold youth who only has been met,
In wrestling throws, by village boys at home;
And thinks that, once upon his feet well set,
His strength will serve to keep unharmed each
bone!
Yet knows not that when time and tide shall meet,
To launch him in the larger world without,
He'll find it difficult to keep his feet,
Unless he think as boldly as he shout:
So stands our cousin-land across the seas—
Full confident in number and in size,
That it will overcome the world with ease.
And make the old lands open wide their eyes!
But old eyes open quick these modern days:
The world's no child, still milking ancient ways,
But growing apace in power alike new worlds sur-
veys.

It will be seen that this progressive author quite discards, among other restraints, the Italian arrangement of sonnet rhymes, and equally, alas! the English standard in the rhymes themselves. We find, throughout, such rhymes as "tongue," "done" (p. 13); "repass" and "gas" (p. 21); "ideal" and "steel" (p. 25); "weary" and "descry" (p. 33); "contempt" and "sent" (p. 73), with many similar combinations. After all, poetry suffers from overearnestness, it may be, almost as much as from indifference.

'The Triumph of Love,' by Edmond Holmes (Lane), seems to involve no such contradiction in the title as did his previous volume, 'The Silence of Love: A Sonnet Sequence.' It seemed a sort of contradiction to imply that sonnets could sing silence and leave it silence still. But 'The Triumph of Love' has been sung measurably since sonnets were created, and though these are here Shaksperean in form—a form now well superseded by the Italian—the type of poetry still retains its charm, and this poet still handles it with a certain measure of skill. Yet the severe test of sixty-three sonnets tries an author's range and versatility very severely, and we find in these poems little or nothing of that extraordinary range of emotion and cadence which is to be found in Tennyson's "In Memoriam" alone. If there is, however, a climax, it is to be found in the very last sonnet of all, which is as follows (LXIII):

When, in the solemn stillness of the night,
My musing soul is filled with love of thee,
I seem to stand upon the world's last height,
The flaming rampart of all things that be.
And as I pause upon that lonely verge,
And plunge my gaze into the gulf below,
I see the cosmic billows sweep and surge
From death to life, with endless ebb and flow.
But howsoever deep my thought may sink
Into that well of darkness and of fire,
And howsoever deep my soul may drink
Of light and life and wonder and desire—
Love still remains—the love that thou hast waked—
Its deeps unfathomed and its thirst unslaked.

A new and more compact edition of 'The Bard of the Dimbovitza; Roumanian Folk Songs,' collected from the peasants by Hélène Vacaresco, and translated by Carmen Sylva and Alma Strettell, comes to us from Messrs. Scribner. The book is already a classic, and an addition to the romantic literature of the world. The poems are, as was well said by Frederick Harrison, "directly, passionately, fiercely human," and yet the touches of nature have wonderful wealth and intimacy. They have long since been analyzed and characterized in these columns. The new edition has the merit of being in one volume, and that of containing nine new poems, which fully sustain the naïve phrases and the simple and ardent emotion of the earlier lays. Like the others, the following has a prelude and finale, which often have no connection with the main song (p. 208):

QUESTIONS.

After the harvest, then the earth is weary,
And saith: "Till the next time of sowing, I am weary,
But when that comes, I shall grow young again."

"Sister, my little sister in the grave,
What tidings shall I give thee of the earth?"
"Tell me if thou hast finished 'broidering,
Sister, thy Sunday shift?"
"Already I have worn it at the dance,
Thinking the while of thee."
"And has the hay grown thick upon our meadow?"
"Last week we mowed it, and it has repaid
The kindly sunshine well;
I thought of thee while we were mowing it."
"Has mother a white pink beside our door?
That is my soul, that grows and blossoms there."
"Truth dost thou speak, the white pink is in
bloom,
And is thy soul;
When I breathe in its scent, I think of thee."
"Sister, now tell me, dost thou feel deep longing
After a husband's kiss?"
"Yea! Of themselves toward the little children
My arms reach forth;
And my womb chideth me, that I let tarry
Her fruitfulness so long;
She speaks: 'Give heed, for Life is hid in thee.'"
"Sister, then hast thou me no more remembered:
Oh, give me never tidings of the earth;
They do but think upon the future there."

After the harvest, then the earth is weary,
And saith: "Till the next time of sowing, I am weary,
But when that comes, I shall grow young again."

In 'Rainbows,' by Olive Custance (Lady Alfred Douglas) (Lane), we have a little volume singularly full, not so much of quotable poems as of quotable phrases, lines, rhymes, single combinations of phrase and description, as in the following (p. 24):

THE SONG.

Sing to me! for your songs drive care away,
And fill with delicate dreams the common day.
In music is your fettered self set free,
It is the unmasked man that speaks to me.
Gone is the cold bright glance I know so well,
Hushed is the hard light laughter like a bell;
Few would believe your smiling shallow eyes
Could swim and burn with such grave mysteries,
And few who know your clear, low voice, would
guess
That it could tremble with such tenderness.
Even your beauty and your pliant grace,
Transfigured by the passion in your face
Grow dim, like lamps at dawn, before the whole
Impulsive revelation of your soul.

Here what holds the eye and ear is the "cold bright glance," "hard light laughter," "smiling shallow eyes." These make us feel that we have seen the person; in other words, the description is alive. The book is dedicated to the Fairy Prince, and on the whole it tells secrets of which the reader wishes to hear more.

'Hand in Hand Verses,' by mother and daughter (Mathews), has in it thought and poetic feeling, with here and there a touch of East Indian flavor, such as often gives a foreign note to English verse; but all who love Landor will find most interest in the following (p. 75):

ROSE AYLMER'S GRAVE.

(Rose Aylmer died in Calcutta on March 2, 1800, and is buried in the old South Park Street Cemetery.)

An English grave 'neath Indian skies,
Marked by a sullen stone:
And this is where Rose Aylmer lies,
Far, flowerless, and alone.
Rose Aylmer was a poet's love,
Sweet, beautiful, and young.
Her elegy, in melody,
The poet-lover sung.

About her grave no flowers grow,
No pleasant boughs are stirred:
No gentle sun, no quiet snow,
No English bee or bird.
The suns of springtime scorch the stone,
In summer, storm and rave.
The winds that herald the cyclone,
The rains that lash the grave.

Rose Aylmer's sister-flowers should spring
In whitest bloom above:
The roses Landor could not bring,
Far distant from his love.
But now a snake lies near her bed,
The crows perch on the rail,
A kite sweeps past, and overhead
The unclean vultures sail.

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"Ah, what avails the sceptred race,
Ah, what the form divine!
What every virtue, every grace!
Rose Aylmer, all were thine.
Rose Aylmer, whom these wakeful eyes
May weep, but never see,
A night of memories and of sighs
I consecrate to thee."

Ah, why regret the gloomy hearse,
The land of banishment?
This is her grave; but Landor's verse
Rose Aylmer's monument.
Rose Aylmer, on thy namestone lies
Love's rose immortally,
The rose of memories and of sighs
Once consecrate to thee.

'Streamlets from the Fount of Poesy,' by N. B. Gazder, B.A., Barrister-at-Law (Leadenhall Press), is a singular outcome of the present condition of England. It rings on every page with "Britannia's triumph," even to rising, while speaking of British soldiers, to such curious climaxes as this (p. 3):

"Their brows are crowned with laurel wreaths,
Their praise is sung in lofty keys,
Their valour shines in mighty deeds
Which gain for them the grand V.C.s!"

The "Pax Britannica" is sung as ardently as if it were not a form of peace-making which devastates whole regions; and, to crown all, there is a religious and grateful poem with the peculiar title, "On the Declaration of Peace with the South African Republics," as if England had achieved any peace with them except by annihilating their existence so that there are no republics now left there. To retain the tradition, however, of the "Pax Britannica," the author writes verses on the death of President McKinley which, although they may possibly be charged with commonplaceness, as if subdued to what they worked in, show at least a friendly feeling.

'Tudor and Stuart Love Songs,' collected by J. Potter Briscoe, F.R.S.L. (Dutton), is one of a thousand collections of stray lyrics; and it is no better and no worse than many others. The editor speaks (p. vii.) of *William* Watson as one of the highest Elizabethan poets, when he means Thomas (p. 34); and in giving Imogen's Morning Song (p. 56), his line, "With everything that pretty is," forms but a poor substitute for the accustomed "pretty bin," besides the injury done through loss of the rhyme. 'All's Well: Being Optimistic Thoughts from the Writings of Robert Browning' (Bell), collected by Graham Hope, is an unusually good collection, and, from its very optimism, suits Browning better than most books of the kind. 'Fulbeck: A Pastoral,' by J. Walter West, A.R.W.S. (Bell), with illustrations by the author, is in itself brief, and not of much value, except that, both to the eye and the ear, it suggests happy old-time associations of English rural life.

Mr. Frederick York Powell publishes 'Quatrains from Omar Khayyám Done into English' (Oxford: Bell), some twenty-four in all. The translation is made, not from the original, but from the English version of Mr. Justin H. McCarthy and from the French version of M. Nicholas. The highest compliment that can be paid to FitzGerald is in the shoal of commonplace versions from Omar which have followed his marvellous bit of work. But Mr. Powell disarms us by writing of his own productions, "They only hope to be considered humble appendices to the rendering of Omar by FitzGerald, for verily, as Hárith sang of Amru long ago (p. 18):

"He is a king that hath brought all under his subjection,
Nor is there among them his peer in his gifts."

GENERAL GREENE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.—II.

The History of South Carolina in the Revolution, 1780-1783. Volume IV. and last. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xxvii., 787.

Greene's military operations in the South are traced by Mr. McCrady with great minuteness, and in general in the same depreciatory spirit that characterizes his treatment of Greene's relations with the partisan leaders. Greene's repeated defeats are critically dwelt upon, while the broader outlines of his movements, in which, though losing the battle, he gains the principal advantage of the campaign, are largely obscured by the mass of incident. It is, indeed, a characteristic of all of McCrady's volumes that their wealth of detail makes it difficult at times to tell just what the story is all about. No one, for example, would be likely to get from the volume before us any clear understanding of that masterly retreat across the Carolinas which did so much to give brilliancy and permanence to Greene's military fame.

In opposition to Ramsay and Johnson, Mr. McCrady is of the opinion that the victory at Cowpens, though resulting in "the destruction of the best regiment in the British service, the loss to it of some others of their best troops, and the end put to the terror of Tarleton," had "no decisive effect upon the opening campaign," and was "much nearer the end of the chain of causes which led to the redemption of these States than to its beginning" (pp. 54, 55). For Morgan's justification of his position at that battle he has unmeasured denunciation. We are not clear as to the grounds for the positive assertion that Greene's position at Cheraw "did not compel Cornwallis to divide his forces." With both his flanks threatened by Greene, Cornwallis had detached Tarleton in pursuit of Morgan, and sent Leslie by way of the Wateree to Camden. Greene's conduct, which Mr. McCrady strongly condemns, in leaving the main army and going with a small guard across the country to join Morgan, is explicable on the assumption that Greene hoped to make the victory at Cowpens a means of assuming the offensive in that quarter, and checking Cornwallis's advance towards Virginia. The movement was unsuccessful, but it is hard to see why Greene should not have attempted it; while the slow movements of Cornwallis, to which, in Mr. McCrady's opinion, Greene's escape was wholly due, rather show that the British commander was left very much in doubt as to how to act. Mr. McCrady's animus, however, is not far to seek. With the withdrawal of the main body of the Americans under Huger, "South Carolina was again abandoned by the Continental army" (pp. 94, 95). Plainly, any plan of campaign which took the Continental troops, relatively inefficient as we are repeatedly told they were, out of the State, had something radically defective about it.

Mr. McCrady agrees with Johnson in acquitting Greene of blame for the sudden attack at Hobkirk's Hill, but cannot understand upon what ground he had expected victory, since his only advantage over the British was in the possession of three pieces of artillery. The campaign, as a whole, he "rather followed than led" (p. 343). For Greene's course at Ninety-six Mr. McCrady has little praise; in his view, Greene should not have turned aside to besiege this post, and ought to have known beforehand of its strength.

It was Greene's misfortune to lose his most important engagements, and although Washington had only praise for what was accomplished, the repeated defeats were bitter disappointments to Greene. Here again, of course, Mr. McCrady finds a weak spot in the armor of this, to him, much overrated hero. Greene, we are told, was always finding some one else on whom to lay the blame for his reverses. At Guilford it was the North Carolina militia, whose inefficiency Greene had denounced in plain terms to Sumter. At Hobkirk's Hill it was Col. Gunby and the First Maryland Regiment. In the latter instance a court of inquiry only confirmed Greene's opinion, but Mr. McCrady thinks Greene's assertion "mere presumption," and that defeat might with as much reason be ascribed to Col. Washington's raid into the British camp, or, indeed, to Greene's own "mismanagement, by which, in advancing his centre, he covered his artillery so completely as to silence it, while, attempting to assail both flanks of the enemy, he exposed his own wings to a like danger" (p. 199). The charge that Sumter's absence was to blame for the disaster is examined at length, with the conclusion that Sumter was only obeying Greene's orders. At Ninety-six, again, Greene had "his usual consolation," this time in the failure of the Virginia militia to join him; while at Eutaw it was (to quote Greene's own words) "one of those incidents to which military operations are subject"—the incident in this case being "the want of discipline in his Continentals, who broke their ranks to secure the spoils of the enemy's camp" (p. 462). We have only to observe in this connection that, with the exception of the blame attached to Sumter for his absence at Hobkirk's Hill, Mr. McCrady appears not to have shown that Greene's explanations were not the true ones, or that, as an officer of the army, bound to report truthfully to his superior, he had any alternative but to state the facts as he saw and understood them. It would be a curious canon of military criticism that would disparage an officer whose defeat was primarily due to the misconduct of some one else.

But Mr. McCrady brings what he evidently regards as a still more serious charge against Greene, namely, a purpose to abandon the South to the British and to return to Virginia, where there would be more opportunity for personal distinction. On the much debated question of the responsibility for Greene's course after the battle of Guilford, Mr. McCrady takes, as usual, ground sharply adverse to Greene. In opposition to Johnson, he affirms that the plan of returning to South Carolina did not originate with Greene, but with Lee, and that, while adopting it, he did not "cordially approve or warmly enter into it" (p. 160).

"Indeed," he adds, "a want of final decision seems to have been one of the defects of his mind; he could never altogether help hankering after the rejected alternative; and so it was that, throughout the ensuing campaign, we shall find him turning to and longing for the field of Virginia as the proper sphere of operations for the commander of the Southern Department" (p. 161).

With his first reverse, Greene returns

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to the Virginia plan, and writes to Lee that he thinks his duty calls him in that direction. This letter of May 9, 1781, already public in Lee's 'Campaigns in the Carolinas,' is given by Mr. McCrady the least liberal or generous construction. Greene is represented as meditating the abandonment of the South and retirement to Virginia, not because his presence was more needed in the latter quarter, but because his present service was uncongenial, and Virginia held out a prospect of personal distinction. Again we must dissent, not from the facts, but from the conclusion. Important as it was for South Carolina that the progress of the British in the State should not go unchecked, it was nevertheless obvious that the safety and independence of the State, as well as the safety and independence of North Carolina and Georgia, depended on the maintenance of communication with Virginia. No graver danger threatened Greene, particularly in the first months of his command, than that Cornwallis, eluding him, might get between Virginia and the American army and cut off all possibility of succor. It seems, therefore, a wise military instinct, rather than a venting of personal chagrin or craving for personal distinction, that led Greene to consider whether his place was not, after all, at the point where lay the greatest danger to the independence of the entire South. That Greene found campaigning in the swamps of Carolina an "uncongenial service," and would have been glad of as much personal distinction as he could properly attain, is as natural as that he should have had little confidence in the power of partisan warfare to rid the country of the British army; but as Commander of the Southern Department—a high-sounding title which seems to disturb Mr. McCrady—he was bound to survey the whole field, and entitled, also, to be himself at the place where, in his judgment, he was most needed.

So far as South Carolina was concerned, its political representatives seem to have been strangely insensible, during the active period of the war, to Greene's incompetency and vacillation. Gov. Rutledge's praise of Greene was echoed by the Jacksonborough Assembly, whose Senate concurred "most sincerely" with the Governor "in acknowledging and applauding the meritorious zeal and the very important services" of "the great and gallant General Greene." The House, in addition to extravagant eulogy of Greene, declared Sumter, Marion, and Pickens "deserving of the highest commendation"; but Mr. McCrady conjectures that it was the "modesty and delicacy" of Sumter and Marion, both of whom were present, that "excluded from the proceedings of the Senate any recognition of the great services they had rendered (pp. 568, 569). He doubts, also, whether the Assembly would have been so eager to testify to their admiration for Greene by purchasing an estate for him had they known that his return to the State "had not been of his own suggestion, and that he had unwillingly remained in the State after coming," or had the partisan leaders been aware that he "had sneered at and belittled their services" (p. 574). Again it was Sumter and Marion who, though sitting by, were "too high-minded to challenge" this undeserved praise.

Greene's relations with the State Government did not continue always so happy. The Assembly, in attempting to provide a system of supply, had forbidden impressment. The whole Continental line was "in a deplorable state for the want of clothing and other necessaries" (p. 619), while a spirit of unrest and insubordination was widespread. The "decisive conduct" of Greene quelled the mutiny, though Mr. McCrady, sure of finding something to complain of in the conduct of the Continental troops, reproaches them for declining to be satisfied with so "substantial and nutritious" a food as rice, which any soldiers not "pampered" would eat rather than mutiny. The controversy between Greene and Governor Mathews over the former's decision to claim on behalf of Congress certain horses, the property of citizens of South Carolina, recovered from the British by Kosciuszko, and between Greene and Governor Guerard over the reception of a Spanish flag, are treated by Mr. McCrady with his usual sneer at Greene's legal attainments and dictatorial ways. After the evacuation of Charleston by the British, Greene had the difficulties which often beset the commander of a victorious army in the interval between the cessation of hostilities and the definitive conclusion of peace. Solicitous over the supplies for the army, he took the liberty of addressing the Assembly on the subject —"most officiously," says Mr. McCrady—urging "the great necessities of Congress, the little to be apprehended from its powers, the injustice that had been done the army, its mutinous temper, the withering state of the treasury, and the imperious [*sic*] duty of enabling the general Government to fulfil its contracts" (pp. 688, 689). The Assembly, little interested in Congress, impatient at the presence of the army, and bent upon the rehabilitation of the State after the disastrous years of war, took deep offence, and was little appeased by a second letter in which Greene tried to smooth the matter over.

We have no space in which to follow Mr. McCrady in his account of Greene's connection with the firm of Banks & Co. It was an unfortunate transaction, ruining Greene's finances and clouding all his later days, and for it he is to be at least as much pitied as blamed. Mr. McCrady gives a clear and detailed account of the matter, with a degree of fairness to Greene much in contrast to his generally hostile attitude. Nor can we examine the many other interesting events in the history of South Carolina in the short period from 1780 to 1783, and note the criticisms of men, occurrences, and motives with which Mr. McCrady's pages are studded. We must take leave of the work with one or two summary statements.

The four volumes of Mr. McCrady's History of South Carolina unquestionably form one of the most valuable contributions to State history, and incidentally to the history of the United States, that have been made in recent years. References to manuscript sources are few, but the printed authorities have evidently been painstakingly examined. To be sure, if the history of every important State is to be written on a similar scale, the study of American annals may well become impracticable for any one who lacks abundant leisure, patience, and enthusiasm; but the larger part of Mr. McCrady's material is certainly of more than local interest. But, for the spirit in which the latter portion of the work has in large measure been carried out, there can be only reprobation. Ample as his equipment of knowledge undeniably is, one puts down Mr. McCrady's final volume with the uncomfortable feeling that the author is first a South Carolinian and second an historian. Jealous regard for his State, thick-and-thin admiration for Sumter and the other partisan leaders, contempt for Congress and the Continental army, and something strongly suggestive of hatred for Greene—these are the impressions which fix themselves most firmly as one reads on through Mr. McCrady's pages. That he has corrected many an error, dissipated more than one illusion, and revealed the weaknesses and inconsistencies of more than one prominent figure, must be admitted. The material for a life of Greene will be used all the better by some future biographer because of the critical and merciless examination to which it has here been subjected. But, from its lack of sober, unbiassed judgment and impartial analysis of motives, Mr. McCrady's great work fails, in its conclusion, at the very points at which an historical work ought to attain success. It offers a profusion of facts, but it breathes no true historical spirit. The voice is Jacob's voice, but the hands are the hands of Esau.

Literary Landmarks of Oxford. By Laurence Hutton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This volume is dedicated to Dr. Patton, late President of Princeton, and is avowedly compiled "for the benefit of the general reading public and of the college men of to-day on the Western side of the Atlantic." Its object is to fill a gap which Mr. Hutton has discovered in Oxford college histories; they devote pages to founders, to prelates, and to politicians, but ignore the literary associations of the University. He deals with his subject in the alphabetical order of colleges, excluding living writers from his consideration.

The result is a piece of book-making which, in spite of its pretensions to learning and accuracy, is of a scandalous slovenliness. The author tells us that he has consulted hundreds of volumes, and that what he has learnt he has set down "patiently, carefully, and, he thinks, correctly." Actually, the book is thick with errors, many of which might have been corrected by the use of the commonest books of reference. The current University Calendar would have warned him against "Christ Church College" and "Brazenose." It would also have prevented him from printing the name of the Rector of Lincoln (Dr. Merry) as "Murray," and that of the Warden of Merton (Mr. Brodrick) as "Broderick"—thus misspelling the names of two out of the three living heads of houses whom he happens to mention. What would be thought of a writer on American colleges who, while making a boast of his accuracy, referred to Dr. Elliott of Harvard and Dr. Hadleigh of Yale? It appears from two distinct passages that Mr. Hutton is not even aware of the difference between a scholarship and a fellowship (pp. 42 and 116). He connects Magdalen Hall with Magdalen instead of with Hertford; there-

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by reviving claims which everybody supposed had been finally disposed of by the Court of Common Pleas in 1694. Mr. Hutton explains that he does this "to make the confusion less confounded," though there is no confusion whatever in the matter to any one who will read the college histories. Clough did not gain the Rugby Balliol Scholarship (p. 44), for there is not and never has been any such thing. Dr. Routh was not a master of Magdalen College School (p. 149), but President of Magdalen College. Mr. Hutton reports a conversation between Swift and Dryden held as late as 1792 (p. 111), and repeats the same date as the year in which Swift received his degree. These are among the errors that strike the eye; one wonders what discoveries would be made by attempting to verify the dates and names page after page.

The author's choice of persons to write about throws significant light upon his knowledge both of English literature and of Oxford. If there is one name in English literature more closely associated with Oxford than any other it is that of Clarendon, from the profits of whose 'History' the Clarendon Press was established. But Mr. Hutton cannot spare a line for him, though he can afford nearly four pages for "Verdant Green." He complains that college histories dwell upon the men who made history rather than upon those who wrote it, yet for himself he ignores not only Clarendon, but Hallam, Gardiner, and Stubbs. His chapter on Christ Church, presumably, would have been overcrowded by a notice of these eminent sons of hers, as it was necessary, at all costs, that it should give a page to C. L. Dodgson. Mr. Hutton's account of Magdalen Hall recognizes Samuel Daniel, but ignores Thomas Hobbes. In writing of Oriel, he mentions Keble and Thomas Arnold, but omits Whately, the Mozley brothers, and Church. Bishop Butler is also forgotten in the chapter on this college. Mr. Hutton was shocked to find that, forty years after J. R. Green had left Jesus College, there was a college servant there who had never heard his name, but there is no evidence that he has himself ever heard the name of T. H. Green. During the nineteenth century there was no more distinctively Oxford man of letters than Mark Pattison, but he, too, is not important enough to figure in this collection. As Mr. Hutton admits Conington (whom, of course, he calls Connington) by virtue of his edition of Virgil, and Liddell and Scott by virtue of their lexicon, he would seem to regard distinction in classical scholarship as a title to mention, but Liddell's great predecessor Gaisford is entirely overlooked.

Being so imperfectly equipped with material for a book on his professed subject, Mr. Hutton was driven to seek padding outside it. He has, therefore, filled page after page with miscellaneous gossip about earlier Oxford customs, and stories of the university life of a few centuries ago, quite irrespective of any literary associations. Three times, for instance (pp. 15, 31, and 180), he notes with interest the small cost of meals in former times. To bring his book still nearer perfection, he bedews it with humor which would excellently serve the purpose of the funny man of a Sunday paper. And having completed this masterpiece, he writes an introduction in which he rebukes the Oxford of to-day for her indifference to, and lack of knowledge of, her past history, and suggests that a volume might be written on "What Oxford Does Not Know about Oxford!"

But this amazing production offers two compensations. Firstly, any subsequent writer on the Literary Landmarks of Oxford will find in it valuable material respecting Mr. Hutton's own connection with the place. He will learn, for instance, that Mr. Hutton's investigations were conducted during a visit of six weeks (p. 3); that he dreamed about Oxford every night during his visit (p. 37); that any baldness visible in him—there is reason for suspecting that a joke is intended here—is due to a disappointment about the identification of Hooker's rooms (p. 87); that he wrote most of this book in a house once occupied by Max Müller (p. 151); and that on several summer afternoons he talked cat-talk to the descendants of Tom Brown's College Toms at Oriel (p. 185). Secondly, the thirteen drawings by Herbert Railton, with which the book is illustrated, are exquisite. They afford a convincing plea for Grangerism, for no one could possibly be blamed for extracting them and pasting them into some book worth keeping. In spite of these compensations, however, the college man in America, whether likely to be a candidate for the Rhodes scholarships or not, would be better advised to try one of the sixpenny guide books.

The Characters of Theophrastus. Translated by C. E. Bennett and W. N. Hammond. Longmans. 1903.

The standard English translation of the 'Characters' is that published by Sir Richard Jebb in 1870, but it is unfortunately out of print, and meanwhile the version of Messrs. Bennett and Hammond is a very fair temporary substitute. Theophrastus was, like his master Aristotle, a savant, and stands outside the pale of pure literature. But Aristotle's 'Poetics,' in spite of its form, became the canon for the composition of tragedy, and so these slight character sketches by the Lesbian naturalist take a by no means insignificant place and represent a definite tendency in the literature of their age. The theory mentioned in the introduction of the latest translators, that Theophrastus influenced Menander, is probably unsound. It is more likely that the 'Characters' echoes the work of the "star of the new Comedy," the poet who hit off every human type—*omnem vitæ imaginem expressit*—who is the true representative of the Comedy that replaced political satire with the psychological study of manners. In the seventeenth century, Theophrastus inspired La Bruyère to translate and imitate him; but while the Greek had drawn the man whom one may meet any day in any century, the Frenchman was more personal and less philosophic. And so, though he covered far more ground than the narrow field of human defects recorded by Theophrastus, he is already less interesting and even less read. From La Bruyère's studies of character, though he scorned the imputation that he wrote maxims, one could make a very good anthology in the style of La Rochefoucauld and so extract the best of him; for we take no interest nowadays in trying to identify *Théodecte* the noisy diner-out, or *Cléon* or *Cléante*. But Theophrastus must be read intact. He did not go so deep into the human heart, but what he saw was the essential. We have all met his exquisite:

"He makes few purchases for himself, but sends presents to his friends at Byzantium, and Spartan dogs to Cyzicus, and Hymettian honey to Rhodes; and when he does these things he tells it about the town. Naturally, his taste runs to pet monkeys, parrots, Sicilian doves, gazelles' knuckle-bones, Thurian jars, crooked canes from Sparta, hangings inwrought with Persian figures, a wrestling ring sprinkled with sand, and a tennis-court. He goes around and offers this arena to philosophers, sophists, fighters, and musicians, for their exhibitions; and at the performances he himself comes in last of all, that the spectators may say to one another, 'That's the gentleman to whom the place belongs.' "

Or the **stupid man:**

"When he goes to receive payment of a debt, he takes witnesses with him. In the winter season he quarrels with his slave because cucumbers have not been provided. He forces his children to wrestle and to run until they fall into a fever. When he is roughing it in the country and himself cooks the vegetables, he puts salt in the pot twice and so makes the dish impossible. When it rains and others declare that the sky is darker than pitch, he exclaims: 'How sweet it is to consider the stars!' And if he is asked 'What is the mortality of the city—how many bodies have passed through the Sacred Gates?' he replies: 'Would that you and I had as many!' "

In these sketches Theophrastus appears to be a humorist with an eye on defects rather than vices, as we should use the term. But the Greeks had not learned to distinguish so broadly between ethics and æsthetics; to them, stupidity, talkativeness, impudence, and pompousness ranked with the vices, and Theophrastus wrote his 'Characters' as a study in ethics in which one may trace the influence of Aristotle as well as of the new Comedy. His Greek style gains by translation; the rendering of the present translators is faithful, and the introduction sufficient. English readers, therefore, who have not access to Professor Jebb's version, may well be grateful for this pleasing little volume.

The Battle with the Slum. By Jacob A. Riis. Illustrated. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This book would have attracted more attention than it has, but for the fact that most, if not all, of it is a republication. After writing 'How the Other Half Lives,' the author published, three years ago, 'A Ten Years' War,' a series of papers intended to account for the progress of "the battle with the slum" since the first volume appeared. Since that time, as he hints in his preface, a good many things have happened, and he has been occupied, not only in the conflict itself, but incidentally in writing about it. In the present volume he has passed the later stages of the conflict in review, "retaining all that still applied of the old volume and adding as much more." The "stories" are reprinted from the *Century*, and these, he adds, are fact, not fiction. The volume is copiously illustrated, and has plenty of real interest without the pictures.

This interest centres about two points: first, the author, and, secondly, what it is the fashion to call the "point of view" of the cause he advocates. Mr. Riis is, of course, an enthusiast, and in his enthusiasm fails to see that a much more restrained way of writing would be more effective for

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his purposes than that which he employs. But his enthusiasm is genuine, and carries conviction. He is so evidently honest in his sympathy for human suffering and ignorance, and even for human perversity—his character shines so transparently through what he says—that the most critical (or, as he would say, most pessimistic) nature is forced first to attend and then to follow. "What the Fight is About," the first half-dozen pages of the book, sums up its whole theory. This theory, to put it in our own words, is that the slum is the measure of civilization. So far from its being tolerable, as those who went before thought, that squalor and filth and vice and crime should exist in great masses and plague-spots, side by side with wealth and education and order and happiness, the new theory is that, in a civilized community, the slum has no business to exist at all; that it can be extirpated, and that if it is not extirpated, the crime lies at the door of the prosperous classes who suffer it to go on. Now when we look at the slums of New York, we look at the worst case in point in the world, for here the slums have been permitted not only to fester and breed their kind, but to give a government to the city. Tammany, which thirty years ago meant only robbery, came in a generation to mean a government devoted to the propagation of vice and crime for private gain—probably the nearest approach to a "hell on earth" yet seen. Even Tammany never quite attained its ideal, but it came near enough to show us that it would have included, when perfect, a police dedicated to the work of deriving a revenue from the licensing not merely of bawds and pimps, but robbers and murderers; a fire department conniving in the work of the police by the spread of fires; a health board propagating disease; a building department aiding the main purpose of the government by selling licenses to violate the laws designed to secure life and limb and prevent the spread of pestilence—all directed to pouring a stream of money into the pocket of the man who managed the ingenious machinery by which he enslaved, plundered, and debauched his principality.

This system it is which has produced the New York pessimist for whom Mr. Riis has so little sympathy; fortunate for us if it has produced enthusiasts like Mr. Riis, who, seeing, as he says, that "we win or we perish," is ready for the battle. His battle with the slum is really only another side of the struggle for good government in which even "pessimists" now know they must take part or perish. Everybody cannot be an enthusiast; but everybody feels the force of inspiration, and Mr. Riis is inspired by that sympathy for the poor and weak and unsuccessful which drives men, not to alms-giving or psalm-singing, but to daily action against evil and its causes. The motive to which he appeals is in the end religious:

"We shall win, for we are not letting things be, the way our fathers did. But it will be a running fight, and it is not going to be won in two years, or in ten, or in twenty. For all that, we must keep on fighting, content if in our time we avert the punishment that waits upon the third and the fourth generation of those who forget the brotherhood. As a man does in dealing with his brother, so it is the way of God that his children shall reap, that through toil and tears we may make out the lesson which sums up all the commandments and alone can make the earth fit for the kingdom that is to come."

Biographic Clinics. By George M. Gould, M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

That curious nervous function which the physiologists call reflex action, illustrated when the pupil contracts under glare, the cheek flushes in anger or pales in fear, the mouth waters in anticipation of food or is parched under a test for guilt, is absolutely independent of the will and usually does not arouse sensation. Reflex action may also be potent as a cause of distress, with effects equivalent to disease, but without sensation in the part directly at fault. Nicotine poisoning is not painful to the nerves supplying the heart, but, when it weakens their control, that organ palpitates or intermits in its pulsations. Vision has been completely lost, without ocular pain, by reflex action from obscure dental conditions, to be restored simply by the removal of the distant cause. The range and list may be greatly extended.

Resting on this recognized foundation, Dr. Gould analyzes the notorious ill-health of five well-known literary men—De Quincey, Carlyle, Darwin, Huxley, Browning—and in each instance attributes the physical prostration to unconscious errors of vision, leading to profound reflex action, for whose existence he finds internal evidence in their published lives. The contention is very plausible in each case. From that text he argues with force and feeling that eye-strain is crippling multitudes with its unrecognized power. The primary defect does not lie in the nervous system. It depends upon aberrations of the refracting apparatus from the normal, often involving not more than a few thousandths of an inch in radii and curves. These trifles acquire their importance from the infinite repetition of infinitesimal stimuli of light rays upon the retina, each stroke distorted by the mechanical errors in the transmitting, not the receiving, equipment. The mischief follows the involuntary effort to correct these errors and to work with imperfect tools. The condition is parasitic to civilization. It is the man absorbed in near work who uses his eyes in ways, one is disposed to say, foreign to their design. Certainly savages, plainsmen, sailors, the men whose requirements are for long-range vision, are not those who fall back on spectacles.

The actual harm occurs in many and unsuspected ways. Headache, pain near the shoulder-blade, nausea, are common enough. Subjective sounds, want of mental concentration, vertigo, a nameless horror of places and conditions—in short, general wretchedness — are less common, but are frequent. Beyond all these, it is entirely conceivable that the nervous disturbances set in train may ultimately, by inhibition in some directions and overstimulation in others, originate disorders of digestion and nutrition, which, as Dr. Gould truly says, "are direct or secondary sources of a large part of the functional diseases and misery of the world." Glasses will not rejuvenate age, but in more cases than are suspected they will remove numerous and most trying infirmities of body and irritability of mind—that is to say, properly adjusted glasses. If Carlyle's physicians only knew!

The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey. By Mrs. A. Murray Smith (E. T. Bradley). With illustrations and plans. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. x, 418.

Mrs. Smith has given special attention to Westminster Abbey and its memorials. Her 'Deanery Guide,' published in 1885, "has passed through twelve editions and has been constantly revised"; but it appears that it is now as large as it can be, and that the special coronation number will give it its final form. 'The Annals of Westminster Abbey' is also hers. We do not remember to have seen it, but it is spoken of in the preface now before us as rather a large work—much larger, for instance, than the present volume. The remarkable interest which English people of some scholarly habit take in Westminster Abbey, as forming, with its adjuncts and its contents, the embodiment of their national or at least their regal history, is the explanation of a perfect shower of publications of different sizes, of varying cost, but all prepared for the same class of visitors or sightseers, under the same semi-historic, semi-romantic influence.

The world of readers of English books thinks of England as that nation which, most of all in Europe, has continued to care for its historical traditions, retaining as it does mediæval features in its legislature, and mediæval ceremonies in the appointment and inauguration of its officials; but on examination it is found that there is much more of this conservatism in appearance than in reality. The one way in which this book may be useful to the historical student, is in pointing out the lack, even in England, of complete adherence to the conservative way of guiding a nation. One who turns these pages will see very frequent allusions to the spoliation by higher authority, to the plundering by unauthorized knaves, to the changes wrought by unworthy "restorers," to the blundering administration of careless or uninformed directors. The royal tomb is there, perhaps, but it has been opened more than once, and on each occasion some part of its contents has been removed; those very objects, so abstracted from the tomb in which they were to have remained until the day of judgment, have again disappeared, sold or pledged by necessitous monarchs, or simply appropriated by palace officials. And then, although there is indeed in England that spirit of continuity for which we give the English people so much credit, it has failed to act on many occasions when the indifference of a single official during his brief term of office has caused losses, and even more frequently changes, which it was impossible afterwards to replace or remedy.

The photographs given in this volume, twenty-five full-page plates, go far to illustrate this mingling or alternation of preservation and destruction, of care for the historical relic and of indifferent utilizing of it for immediate profit or convenience. The tombs, preserved in part but in new situations; the architecture, still there, but modified by restoration or by unrepaired destruction; the royal effigies, with their record of admitted importance, at one time so completely forgotten that their place of deposit was known to but a few custodians, and their exposure now to a public which, so far as it is careless,

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laughs at their unsightly oddity, and, so far as it is studious, is annoyed by their dubious condition of frequent repair and modification—are all suggested by these illustrations, though, of course, the explanation given in the text is needed to make the truth obvious.

It is probable that that text is trustworthy. It consists of so great a number of studies in semi-historical legend that it must have required the half a lifetime which Mrs. Smith seems to have spent upon the subject to accumulate and arrange so large a collection of bits of information. And who is there who can check such a series of statements? It is not history, for there are no statements of general tendency, of gradual development, whether of the life of the community or of the governmental institutions of the country; and it is not merely legend, because the stories are not told merely as stories. Thus, in the case of Edward III. and his queen Philippa, there is much said of Froissart's view of the Queen, and Froissart is named as "her friend and faithful secretary"; and there is much about the tomb which Edward erected in the Abbey to her memory, and about the thirty little figures of mourners of whom all but two had disappeared when Sir George Gilbert Scott began his rather elaborate restorations of parts of the Abbey, some thirty years ago, while only one is to be found now; and there is something about so much as remains of the iron grille with its figures, and the wooden canopy with its decorations. The story goes on to tell in a quasi-historical way of the death of Edward, and the quarrels and the civil war which were to follow. With the next chapter this story begins again with the details of Richard II.'s life and actions; and his half-legendary history, with all its doubts and uncertainties and contrary allegations, is treated in a chapter (pp. 45-55), in which there is almost nothing about the Abbey or its contents—only mention of that tomb which Richard erected to his first queen, but from which the recumbent figures have disappeared; and of that other monument, the well-known painting so often reproduced as one of the few authentic and artistically valuable portraits of so early an epoch.

To pass over centuries, and to open the book quite casually at page 344, is to find ourselves amid the memorials of two unlucky campaigners in America, Major André and John Burgoyne, and associated with them some men of less fame who were also known at one time as soldiers in Great Britain's American possessions, as they then were—Enoch Markham and Sir Archibald Campbell. No possible artistic interest attaches to such memorials of these men as still exist, but it would appear that their somewhat romantic history is a part of the "Roll-Call of the Abbey." Indeed, the next chapter is devoted to the makers of the British-Indian Empire, and the final chapter (pp. 383-404), deals with literary men, theologians, and even men of science and of affairs whose tombs are enclosed within the Abbey walls. It is quite evident that the attempt to make a continuous narrative of all this, and to invest it with a sentiment half-patriotic, half-romantic, is so far an injury to the book, considered as a record, that one is never certain as he reads where the ascertained facts end and the author's imaginative treatment begins. There is, however, an index, limited, indeed, to proper names, and therefore excluding incidents or events, but still perhaps to be thought sufficient for a "Roll-Call."

Tracts Relating to the Currency of Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720. Edited by Andrew McFarland Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

This is a collection of tracts, supplementary to Mr. Davis's important work in two volumes on 'Currency and Banking in the Province of Massachusetts Bay,' published two years since by the American Economic Association and reviewed at length in these columns. It embraces the text of some of the original matter by means of which students are enabled to trace the evolution of the prevailing theory of money and exchange in the New England colonies. It consists mainly of statutes and pamphlets, the latter now of extreme rarity and much scattered. Of some, only a single copy is known to exist. Mr. Davis aims to put all of them within easy reach of students. How great a service this will be, only those can understand who have attempted to find even a small part of them. Mr. Davis's success in bringing out future volumes will depend in part on the public demand for the present one, which contains eighteen pamphlets, embraced in 394 pages. The peculiarities of spelling and of capital letters and italics in the original are followed, and the paging of the old pamphlets is indicated. There is also a facsimile of one page of each.

The first of the series, entitled "Severals Relating to the Fund," is the oldest. Only one copy of this is known. It is in the Watkinson Library at Hartford. The late J. Hammond Trumbull established the date of publication as March, 1681, and identified the author with the Rev. John Woodbridge of Newbury, Mass. The Fund here contemplated was "a Fund of Land . . . in the nature of a Money Bank or Merchandise-Lumber" (*i. e.*, Lombard), based upon land. It is the first outline that has come down to us of the theory of land-banking that was afterwards put in practice in some of the New England colonies, and later in the Southern and Southwestern States of the Union, in each case disastrously. Mr. Davis has shown, in his second volume, how this conception of banking was derived by an illogical process from the example of the Bank of Amsterdam, which was itself not based on land, but on bullion, and was successful for that reason. "Severals Relating to the Fund" has several imitators in the volume before us, in which it is interesting to trace the growth and spread of the fallacy that ultimate security for payment can be made to answer the same purpose as immediate cash payment in establishing a bank.

"Some Proposals to Benefit the Province" is the theme of the last tract in the collection. It bears date 1720. The benefit proposed to the Province was to be a bank owned by the state, to issue bills to be loaned upon improved lands, "or any sufficient security," for twenty-one years at 6 per cent. per annum, payable in hemp, flax, turpentine, pitch, tar, resin, fish, oil, whalebone, "or any other specie that will prevent importation, or that is good for exportation." These articles were "to be stored up in the Lumberhouse," which was a part of the bank, and in due time to be exported to the "Streights" and sold for bullion, which should be brought back and lodged in the bank. In this way it was reckoned that in twenty-one years the whole bank stock would be converted into bullion, with which the bills might be redeemed. Then the debt of the borrower was to be cancelled without other payment. The benefits of this scheme to the borrowers were too obvious to need demonstration, but the author figured out a profit also to the state of no less than £928,700, if 2,000 farmers should take out bills to the extent of £100 each. This curious plan was never put in practice, but traces of it are to be found in the "Land Bank or Manufactory Scheme" of 1740.

The Grounds of Theistic and Christian Belief. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D. Revised edition, in great part rewritten. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xx, 463.

This is much more than a new edition of a work published twenty years ago and long held in deserved respect. The author, in the leisure of his retirement from the active work of the classroom, and in the light of a score of years of added study and familiarity with two decades of discussion, has completely rewritten the volume and made it essentially a new work. In its new dress it offers, as it did in the first edition, for the day when that was published, a strong presentation of the arguments for the being of God, a critique of the principal anti-theistic theories, and a vigorous and scholarly defence of the historic verity of the Christian faith as set forth in the Gospels. It is interesting to observe how the proportion of argument has altered in the author's discussion; and now, in the evidences of Christianity, an increasing weight, in this edition, is given to its moral or internal proofs, though Professor Fisher by no means abandons confidence in the historic significance and apologetic value of miracles. The most extensive single discussion of the book is that regarding the authorship of the fourth Gospel, and Professor Fisher here presents the strongest argument that has recently been offered in defence of the traditional ascription of its composition to the Apostle John. The recent antagonistic literature on the subject is carefully considered, and combated with much skill and learning. Altogether, whether its conclusions are accepted or opposed, the volume is well fitted to sustain the reputation of one who has long been regarded as a leader among the church historians of America.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Literary Index, 1902. Edited by W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker. Publishers' Weekly.
Babcock, W. H. Kent Fort Manor. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Bacheller, Irving. Darrell of the Blessed Isles. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. The Nature-Study Idea. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Barry, J. D. A Daughter of Thespis. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Batson, H. M. A Book of the Country and Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Betts, Lillian W. The Story of an East-Side Family. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Boissier, Gaston. Tacite. Paris: Hachette & Co.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Third Series. Vol. VII. Macmillan.
Brady, C. T. The Bishop. Harpers. $1.50.
Briggs, G. R. The Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry, Revised by Maxime Bôcher. John Wiley & Sons. $1.

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Cable, G. W. The Cavalier. (Julia Marlowe Edition.) Scribners. $1.50.
Chambliss, Paul. At the Heart of Old Pelée. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.50.
Churchill, W. S. Mr. Brodrick's Army. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
Coleman, J. M. Social Ethics: An Introduction to the Nature and Ethics of the State. Baker & Taylor Co.
Dahn, Felix. Felicitas. Translated by Mary J. Safford. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Darwin, Francis. More Letters of Charles Darwin. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Dopp, Katharine E. The Place of Industries in Elementary Education. Chicago: University Press.
Duff, R. A. Spinoza's Political and Ethical Philosophy. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan, $3.50.
Dunbar, P. L. Lyrics of Love and Laughter. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Ellwanger, G. H. Love's Old Sweet Song. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Flynt, Josiah. The Rise of Ruderick Clowd. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. New edition. B. W. Huebsch.
Gwilliam, G. H. Place of the Peshitto Version in the Apparatus Criticus of the Greek Testament. (Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica.) Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Gwynne, Paul. The Pagan at the Shrine. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hamilton, G. L. The Indebtedness of Chaucer's Troilus and Criseyde to Guido delle Colonne's Historia Trojana. Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.25.
Hanotaux, Gabriel. Contemporary France. Vol. I. Translated by J. C. Tarver. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75.
Holleman, A. F. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. Translated by A. J. Walker and O. E. Mott. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Liljencrantz, Otillie A. The Ward of King Canute. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Livingston, B. E. The Rôle of Diffusion and Osmotic Pressure in Plants. (Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago.) Chicago: University Press.
Murray, A. S. The Sculptures of the Parthenon. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.50.
Lummis, C. F. Out West. Vol. XVII. San Francisco: Out West Co.
Morley, Margaret W. Down North and Up Along. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Moss, Fletcher. Pilgrimages to Old Homes, Mostly on the Welsh Border. Didsbury (England): Published by the Author.
Mowbray, J. P. The Conquering of Kate. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Annotated by Thomas Carlyle, and edited by Alexander Carlyle. 2 vols. John Lane.
Pears, Edwin. The Destruction of the Greek Empire and the Story of the Capture of Constantinople by the Turks. Longmans, Green, & Co. $7.
Peet, L. H. Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park. Brooklyn, 755 Ocean Avenue: The Author.
Penal Servitude. London: William Heineman; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Phillips, D. G. Golden Fleece. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Price, W. L., and Johnson, W. M. Home Building and Furnishing. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Reed, H. B. Notes from Nature's Lyre. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Sachse, J. F. Justus Falckner, Mystic and Scholar. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Sangster, Margaret E. When Angels Come to Men. Fleming H. Revell Company.
Schmidtke, Alfred. Die Evangelien eines Alten Unzialcodex. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. 4.50 marks.
Sénancour, E. P. de. Obermann. Brentano.
Spangler, H. W., Greene, A. M., jr., and Marshall, S. M. Elements of Steam Engineering. John Wiley & Sons. $3.
Stephens, R. N. The Mystery of Murray Davenport. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Stickney, J. T. De Hermolai Barbari Vita atque Ingenio. Paris.
Stickney, J. T. Les Sentences dans la Poésie Grecque d' Homère à Euripide. Paris.
Temple Classics: (1) Lays of Ancient Rome. T. B. Macaulay: (2) The Borough: A Poem. George Crabbe; (3) The Bee and Other Essays. Oliver Goldsmith. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.
The Fireside Dickens: (1) The Adventures of Oliver Twist; (2) The Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club; (3) Sketches by Boz. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Henry Frowde.
The Kaiser's Speeches. Forming a Character Portrait of Emperor William II. Translated by Wolf von Schierbrand. Harpers.
Treadwell, F. P. Analytical Chemistry. Vol. I.: Qualitative Analysis. Translated by W. T. Hall. John Wiley & Sons. $3.
Van Vorst, Marie. Poems. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.

The Tribune says: "The eleven stories are varied and interesting . . . There is serious thought as well as good art in this book, there is individuality also, and we gladly commend it."

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